

The
EDUCATIONAL RECORD

VOL. XVIII

NUMBER I

JANUARY
1937

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AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

1936-37

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Published Quarterly by
THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION
744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

50 CENTS A COPY \$2.00 A YEAR

Entered as second-class matter June 8, 1932, at the Post Office at Washington, D. C., under the Act of August 24, 1912

The Educational Record

January 1937

CLARENCE STEPHEN MARSH, *Editor*

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January



1937

The Cité Universitaire of the University of Paris

By AUGUSTE V. DESCLOS

A FEW weeks ago, the leading papers of the principal countries related for their readers the dedicating ceremony of the International House built by Mr. John D. Rockefeller for the Cité Universitaire of the University of Paris.

No doubt the occasion was interesting. Once more the attention of this petty world was called to the grand manner in which the great benefactor devotes his wealth to the service of his fellow men.

It may be, however, that the public, admiring the munificence of the gift, did not realize the opportunity to which it is due, the wisdom that prompted it, the hopes it awakens.

If Mr. Rockefeller elected to build the house in Paris, it was because Paris offered the most fertile field for the realization of the idea to which he has become so firmly attached—the development of peace among men through the educational action of bringing together the young people of different nations in some common effort; because that same idea had already actuated a few Frenchmen of vision, had brought about the transformation of the University system of France, had set up in the greatest center of learning of the country, and perhaps of the world, a machinery that

needed only his contribution to be as perfect as one could make it.

Since the French Revolution, the French universities had become entirely non-residential. The University of Paris, particularly, the *Mater Universitatum* of the Middle Ages on the model of which so many others, Oxford and Cambridge for instance, had framed their organization, had closed and lost all its famous colleges. It had confined itself to the great task of research and teaching in which it had found a new and splendid life, but had left its students to fend for themselves as best they might. They lived with families, their own or those with whom they stayed as paying guests, or in the numerous small hotels of the Latin Quarter that catered to their wants. It was a picturesque life; the fame of its colored Bohemianism has reached far and wide.

It could not survive the war. The incomes of the middle classes to which the great majority of the students belonged, had suffered greatly, while the index of the cost of living had risen from 100 in 1914 to 356 in 1919 and 569 in 1925, with the result that the monthly expenditure of a student rose from roughly 200 francs in 1914 to 800 francs in 1920 and 1,200 francs in 1925. The war had also caused a complete stoppage of all building operations, even the work necessary to maintain the houses in good repair. Moreover, a very large number of people from the war area had taken refuge in Paris, crowding into the hotels and "pensions" left vacant by the student population fighting at the front. As a consequence, the students found themselves at the end of the war without the means of living and without a stone on which to lay their heads.

Yet, owing to the slackening down or interruption of studies during that drear period, a number of young people were desirous of making up for lost time and taking their degrees. Meanwhile, a multitude of students from all over the world who would formerly have gone to Germany now began to flock to Paris, which became once more the universal center it had been during the Middle Ages.

The figures of the students registered at the University from the beginning of the century will show this clearly: The number of students, which had risen from 30,370 in 1901 to 41,109 in 1913, fell to 29,880 in 1920, and rose again to 50,366 in 1923.

The poverty and overcrowding of this mass of students was exactly similar to that prevailing in Paris seven centuries earlier, and the situation was relieved in almost exactly the same way. Just as Robert de Sorbon had bought a house in 1257 to house 16 poor students of the University and thus started the creation of the Colleges, so, in 1920, a man known for his benefactions as well as for his business ability, M. Deutsch de la Meurthe, offered the Rector of the University 10,000,000 francs to build a place of residence where 350 poor students might find cheap and healthy lodging with good food.

The movement thus launched with a benevolent object was almost at once extended in a new and higher direction. The Rector reported the offer to the Minister of Education, Senator Honnorat, who seized upon it as the means of carrying out a plan long in his mind to bring about a fruitful contact between the students of different nationalities attending the University. "A home for 300 French students," said the Minister, "what an admirable ideal! Homes for 3,000 students of all nationalities, that would be better still."

And straightway he started negotiations between the city of Paris and the state, to secure a site for the buildings. The fortifications that had been erected in the middle of the nineteenth century, having become obsolete, were being pulled down. It was on their site that M. Honnorat, after protracted discussions, succeeded in persuading the city of Paris to sell to the state, which donated it to the University, a tract of land of 23 acres in an excellent position. It is on high ground near one of the finest parks of Paris. The area was subsequently extended, as the plan developed, into a campus of more than 100 acres.

While the first house, named after the founder, M. Deutsch

de la Meurthe, and his wife, was being built, Senator Honnorat, who was no longer a Minister, the Cabinet to which he belonged having fallen, began casting around to find the necessary funds to carry out his project.

The first to respond to his call was M. Philippe Roy, the Canadian Minister to Paris, who wished to find suitable accommodations for his young countrymen studying in Paris. He set out for Canada and with the help of Mr. J. M. Wilson he quickly succeeded in collecting the money needed, so that, before the first house was completed, a dormitory for 45 Canadians had been begun. The Deutsch de la Meurthe Foundation was dedicated in July 1935, the Canadian House in October 1926.

The movement thus launched developed regularly. With untiring faith and energy Senator Honnorat went from country to country, soliciting all those who he thought might be persuaded to contribute to the work of bringing together the student population of the world. Governments, public and private bodies, men of all classes and conditions responded to his appeal, and in less than ten years' time 19 different hostels accommodating a total of some 2,500 students, men and women, were built and opened. There are to date in the University City of Paris the following foundations:

The Deutsch de la Meurthe Foundation

The Home of the Canadian students

The Belgian House

The House of the Argentine students

The dormitory of the National Agricultural College

The Japanese College

The Indo-Chinese House

The United States House

The House of the Armenian Students

The Swedish House

The Danish House

The Greek Foundation

The House of Cuba

The House of the Provinces of France

The Swiss Foundation
The Spanish College
The Dutch College
The Franco-British College
The Foundation of Monaco

This list is by no means closed, and before the work is finished there is every prospect that a number of other countries will have their houses of residents on the campus where so many nations are already represented.

From the administrative point of view, all the foundations are autonomous, each one being provided with a governing body or board of trustees which, under the supervision of the Council of the University, administers the interests of the foundation. The buildings, the site, the grounds, are the property of the University, which holds them in trust for the purpose to which they are dedicated; this insures that the foundations shall be free of taxation, an advantage by no means to be despised.

Some are already endowed, but the majority have to rely for their support on the fees paid by the students, which average about 250 francs per month. In one important respect, the foundations differ from the college hostels and dormitories of the British and American Universities: with the exception of breakfast, they do not provide for the meals of their residents.

In order to prevent the segregation of students by nationalities and to facilitate contacts between them in their several dormitories, it was decided from the very outset that the foundations would be considered as different parts of one big unit—the Cité Universitaire—and that a central building, a Student Union, should be provided, where they could find all the amenities necessary for a pleasant life in common and where they could take their meals together. For some time this was taken care of in a temporary structure, but after a while Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., realizing the opportunity, stepped in and built in the midst of all the foundations his International House which supplies on a most magnificent

scale the wants of the students. In its lounges, common rooms, theater, cinema, restaurants, café, library, swimming pool, gymnasium, bowling alleys, and squash courts they find the most luxurious club that exists anywhere, while the adjacent park, playing fields, tennis courts, etc. furnish similar open air advantages.

Thus, in the short space of ten years, five of which were impoverished by the general depression, at the time when the hopes that had been raised by the League of Nations have wavered and dwindled everywhere, an instrument has been created at great cost and with fervent hope for the furtherance of the old ideal that Christmas sings: "In terra Pax Homini-bus bonae voluntatis."

How will the youth of today respond to the effort of the men of good will who have built the Cité Universitaire? Youth is proverbially impatient and critical of the action of their elders. To what use will they put the splendid machine that has been entrusted to them? Will they have the vision, the generosity, the courage to which its existence is due, and can we trust their wisdom to rise above the hatreds, the envy, the brutality which are more and more estranging men and classes and nations? Will they realize the possibilities that this Cité Universitaire opens for them and, making headway against the wave of barbarousness that is sweeping over the world, will they unite their young strength, marshal their enthusiasm in support of the ideal of civilization and peace which has moved to action the creators of the Cité? The future is in their hands.

Meanwhile, we are doing our best to help them. In the Franco-British College, for instance, with its population in two divisions of 140 women and 80 men, 70 of whom are British, 120 French, and 30 of other nationalities, the students are distributed so as to facilitate international contacts. Various activities have been organized for music, dramatics, the exploration of the historical, literary, artistic aspects and riches of Paris and its neighbourhood; sports and games have been set going; arrangements have been made for competent

tutorial guidance for the individual work of the students as well as for work in common. Lectures and debates afford more opportunities for the exchange of ideas, while concerts and dances help to enliven the house and create new relationships.

Perhaps the following little anecdote will show that the Franco-British College, though it has only been open six months, has already begun to achieve the purpose to which it was dedicated.

There came here last May a young student from Edinburgh, holder of a modest scholarship. He was a classical scholar with a good knowledge of French but without any interest in other peoples than his own. When he left three months later, his stipend expended, he bade farewell to the Director. Lingered a little, he blushed and stammered: "I cannot tell you how these three months have changed the world for me. They have opened my eyes, they have made me understand, they have made me appreciate other peoples. Will you do me the favor to accept for the college a little picture I have in my room. It isn't worth anything, it's just a reproduction of a Van Gogh, but I like it and I should like to leave it to the college in memory of what this has meant for me."

The little image of an old chair now hangs in the Director's room; it will certainly stay there, an encouragement and a reward for the work which won the heart of that young Scot; the token of our first triumph, the gauge of worthy achievements to come.

The Responsibility of Psychiatry to the Field of Education*

By JAMES S. PLANT

THE responsibility of psychiatry to the field of education is three-fold and gathers each of these parts from different aspects of its development over the last generation. So simple an analysis is not realistic but seems necessary to getting the proper perspective.

I

When in 1906 Beers vivified the mental hygiene movement I take it that he only crystallized what was already a widespread—if amorphous—development. It is notable that a volume brilliantly written to bring about better treatment for patients within hospitals was the springboard for a movement that has interested itself almost solely in the problems of persons previous to hospitalization. Though the term is entirely a misnomer, for the moment we will speak of this as “the mental hygiene movement” the phrase has very definite connotations for each of us here. This mental hygiene movement has progressed almost entirely upon the premise that prevention is a temporal matter in the sense that mental problems become worse as time goes on, and that the earlier you get hold of a problem the easier it is of solution. I suspect (and will return to this point) that time merely shifts the locus of the problem rather than making it “easier” or “harder.” As you or I grow up we gradually assimilate and become affected by the problem-situations of our parents, teachers, etc. Indeed this personalization of social stresses is one of the most significant events of growth. The fallacy of the mental hygiene premise—so far as “prevention” goes—appears in even a cursory view of its preoccupations during

* Read before the New York Psychiatric Society, November 4, 1936.

these last thirty years. Our interest developed in the adolescent, then in the younger child, then in the habits of the infant, and then in the "sets" of the parents of that infant—so that we are back again at the adult area where we started. I am not criticizing this approach. It is necessary and in the field of education psychiatry has very wide responsibilities here. It is, however, the contribution of a more and more refined form of clinical psychiatry and is not really mental hygiene.

This contribution has unquestionably already been great and there is urgent necessity of its being further pushed. All children in making the adjustment from home to school, in making the adjustment from parent to parent-surrogate, drag into this new situation the problems and perplexities of the family drama. They become confused and begin in this way a dreary course of rebellions and consequent punishment and misunderstanding. We have a great deal to do also in assisting the schools with variously handicapped youngsters—post-encephalitics, personality disorders with chorea, emotional problems in handedness, etc. Yet we would not see this whole matter clearly if we did not recognize that this simply carries back the problem of straightening up people to ever and ever more faint nuances of misconduct and maladjustment.

Despite the contribution to the field of education that is involved in this clinic development and the fact that it has been very largely responsible for impressing upon school people the importance of the emotional life of children, we must face three fundamental defects that make of it a self-limiting affair. The first of these is its implication that psychiatry busies itself with the adjustment of problems. It emphasizes what is a long standing, traditional medical attitude—that of "cure" in the sense of the wiping out of problems. The real problem before us, however, is not the adjustment of problems so much as it is that people learn to adjust to problems—to having problems.

The second difficulty is implicit in the first and derives from the dependence which this clinic movement has had upon

techniques. As long as one is dealing with clinical psychiatry rather than mental hygiene, there is search for those technical processes that are analogous to the x-ray or electro-cardiograph. The practicing physician today, for instance, is rather avidly asking us for "those certain and sure-fire fundamentals that mental hygiene can offer." I am sorry to say that we ourselves are considerably to blame for this attitude. It is a natural outcome of the spread of clinical psychiatry into the social field. If, perforce, we are fundamentally physicians then why haven't we brought our little black bag of pills and other impedimenta?

The third difficulty with this approach is that it has never coped with the demand made upon it as to extension of service. For instance, in 1923 we had a clinical psychiatric service in the Essex County Juvenile Clinic costing \$17,000 a year. During these intervening years this same political unit (involving about 1,000,000 people) has increased its psychiatric interests and services six-fold. The present structure is busier and has more demands upon its time than did the original one. I suspect very strongly that if we were to double our present facilities they would be busier than we are at the present time. Moreover, at least with us, there is not the slightest bit of sound evidence that we have been able to reduce the budget of any institution interested in maladjustment. This is by no means a statement of disbelief in the importance of this approach. It does mean that from the point of view of the prevention of maladjustment the clinic movement up to the present time has not been able to bring proof of its efficacy. Indeed it is more likely that this vast development of clinics has made increased demands in terms of specialized services. Perhaps results should be measured in terms of happiness (rather than budgets) but if this had been a marked contribution it would seem reasonable that there would have been at least a slight reduction in the demands upon the courts, the correctional, or the mental institutions.

In summation, may I then say that this first responsibility

of psychiatry—that is, in the field of extended clinical psychiatry—has been met considerably in terms of (a) emphasizing the emotional factors in the field of education; (b) certain alleviations of pressing difficulties within the classroom; and (c) emphasizing the great cost of the misfit. One says, however, that the method is self-limiting to the extent that (a) it is in no sense a preventive development (admittedly it may represent the prevention of further difficulty but this is not true prevention); (b) there is considerable evidence to date that its even very wide extension demands all along the line increase rather than decrease in budgets; and (c) in terms of “results” we may still be at the place where we can say that “insanity is preventable” but we are certainly not at the place that we are proving that this statement is true. (Obviously excepting certain psychoses following physical traumata as in syphilis and alcoholism.)

II

This clinical approach led to a second development for a number of reasons, one of which (I make bold to say) was that by 1925 its self-limitations had made themselves pretty clear to a number of leaders in both the fields of psychiatry and education as they realized that we were never catching the case quite early enough. This led to the suspicion that the belief in a large time-component in simplicity contained some sort of joker in it. Also it appeared that regardless of what was done with the child there were certain abnormal personalities in the classroom that produced so unfavorable an atmosphere as to make the efforts with the child of no avail. This latter transfer of interest from the abnormality of the child to the abnormality of the teacher was obviously still just an extension of the attitude and method of clinical psychiatry. It is still prevention of further difficulty but it is not true prevention. In the sense that we have long since ceased to ferret out the very earliest manifestations of typhoid fever—to occupy ourselves (in a program of true prevention) at reservoirs and dairies with those conditions favorable to the

propagation of the typhoid bacillus—in that sense still an enormous amount of our present interest in the mental attitudes of teachers is not mental hygiene. In the sense, however, that in attacking this same problem we interest ourselves in the standards set up for teacher selection, the rigid classification of schoolroom experiences, the overweening interest in symbolic thinking, the consequent belief that academic education holds answer to every one of our social problems—in the assumption that these things must naturally give rise to those stresses which will produce personal maladjustments—to this extent are we dealing with mental hygiene and with what I should like to call true prevention.

In other words, the problem of prevention shows itself more and more clearly as a lateral rather than as a longitudinal affair. To get a "case" earlier does not mean that it is easier but rather that the matters to be straightened up are on a much wider social basis. An individual of 45 has, as it were, bundled up within his own personality the various attitudes and problems of life. He is still, it is true, affected by wife and children, by employer and employee, but these problems are pretty largely tinged and determined by the attitudes which he has already formed. One may at 45 fail to find what he is looking for but at least what he is looking for is apparently a fairly well intra-personally determined thing. If now we were privileged to see this same person when he was 3 or 4, we would have found the determinants of the later picture, but these would appear in the unhappinesses or triumphs of his father and mother, his pre-school teacher, his minister, etc.

This is not a new view. Psychiatrists to a large extent have met it by extending clinical psychiatric service to this same parent, teacher, or minister. I feel that our group has been (even at this point in their responsibilities) singularly blind to the institutional structures and pressures which encourage (or indeed, make necessary) these peculiarities. It is due to this fundamental barrenness in our approach that the truer developments in mental hygiene have to a large extent

been in extra-medical hands. The question of curriculum, of freedom from academic pressure, of such changes in the pressure of the social milieu as shall considerably lessen the chances of maladjustment—these have been largely dealt with by persons outside of our group.

One asks then what our responsibility at this second point of contact is. Are we forever to be more and more attenuated clinical psychiatrists and as such do we have anything to offer to this problem in the field of education, or are we indeed ourselves to become sociologists (educators) and in this way contribute to the problem of prevention?

Concerning this, two things are to be said:

First, clinical psychiatry should constantly be feeding to the educator the results of its findings. This it does through what might be called the method of the casual breakdown. The casual breakdown is that individual who now for the first time (or practically the first time) is showing some sort of break with the social situation. Thus the occasional truant is an excellent example of the casual breakdown. A boy who first steals belongs in this group. The child who has been going to Sunday School and who now stops going is a casual breakdown. The drama of this break lights up the person-social institution equation. When a boy first plays hookey he can tell you what he was looking for in school, what he didn't get—he can tell you why he played hookey. The boy who has played hookey 100 times cannot tell you this (except that even then he can often very nicely go back to his first truancy). One may illustrate the casual breakdown in pointing out one of the fallacies in William Healy's profound work. Healy very early found (just as the rest of us do) that the child could almost invariably remember the first time that he stole. Children who have taken hundreds of dollars can often readily, and apparently accurately, describe minutely the time that the first nickel was taken. Healy has falsely assumed that the clarity of the causation for this first affair indicates that it is the causation of all subsequent affairs.

I believe that this is wrong and that the truer picture is

that the first stealing constitutes a casual breakdown in which the drama of the break with the social institution or social demand is keen enough to mean that the individual sees the situation with a clarity which does not occur in repetition. The method of the casual breakdown involves the employment of the clinical psychiatric technique at those points early enough in the break to throw dramatic interest upon the break at the same time that the point is not chosen so early that the youngster fails to recognize that a problem exists. (Adler and others have pointed out the difficulty in working with individuals who do not feel the presence of a problem. We also have the evidence of the vapid nature of the results of questionnaire methods. These are all indications of the need of a *break* in order to get information.)

The responsibility of the psychiatrist to the field of education is that through his work with the early truants and then through his work with those who are first showing rebellion (not so bad as truancy yet) he shall feed to the educator a constant stream of material surrounding the question, "What was the child looking for?" This question may be put similarly as, "What does the school mean to the child?" Or, "To the total personality picture, what does the institution of education contribute?" Or, "What of that for which the child was looking has the schoolroom or the curriculum or the crankiness of the teacher failed to provide?"

In other words, the mental hygiene program in the school will only be sound at that time that it makes its progress on the basis of what the school experience *should* provide to the personality. The responsibility of psychiatry is that it should provide through the data which it gets from the casual breakdown an ever increasing amount of material as to "what the personality was looking for." (Many of you will say that the casual breakdown—because of the drama of the situation—doesn't tell you what the school didn't provide to him but only what he in the heat of the moment *thought* that it didn't provide. It is for this reason that clinical psychiatry must move over more toward the least acute socio-personality crises,

that it must employ a large number of cases, and that it must use the data as hunch material for experimental changes in the institutional structure—changes which are to be watched for increasing or decreasing amounts of maladjustments.)

The second comment introduces what I think of as psychiatry's third responsibility—the need not so much that we become sociologists (educators) as that we become acutely aware of the problems and preoccupations of the sociologist. The situation here is one in which the individual data coming from the practice of a very refined sort of clinical psychiatry is coming face to face with and is being intermeshed with what one might call sociological data from the institutions in which the individual finds himself. These data are of no import unless we assume (1) that individuals find themselves blocked, thwarted, and molded by social institutions, and (2) that institutional structures are subject to conscious change.

For example: A child comes into the world prepared to eat continuously. In fact one suspects that the process of feeding has been an uninterrupted, even affair during the period of gestation. Social demands first of all place upon this individual the need of waiting two hours for food, then of waiting several more hours, then of washing behind his ears and cleaning his finger nails before he can get it, and finally of giving a certain amount of work before this attainment. The psychological process here is that if demand is not immediately met, emotion develops and this emotion is then translated into terms of appetite or hunger. Hunger we allow to be expressed in yelling and kicking at first but slowly train to be expressed in terms of politeness and propriety and finally in terms of energy given to society.

Going back to our two assumptions we say not only that the person's behavior is molded by these social demands and indeed that every sort of productive enterprise and also every form of neurotic escape comes out of this simple social demand, but also that it would be relatively a fairly simple matter to set up a social plan of eating six times a day or of deciding that certain classes of individuals did not need to work

for their food. In other words, we now approach in this third responsibility the need for the construction of an individual-social balance between the needs of the personality and those of the institutional structure.

III

In outlining psychiatry's third responsibility to the field of education, may I for just a moment make a brief and grotesquely simple analysis of the history of the theories of learning—of the process of assimilating the cultural pattern? Most of us in this room were brought up under a process of teaching based upon a monistic philosophy—the assumption that there was such homogeneity in God's world that all that was needed in order to learn something was that one be exposed to it. If we were told that two times two equalled four there could be no question that we would learn it. Two times two has never been anything but four and is so inherent in human experience that it must be understood by everybody. As this idea ran into difficulty, education developed interest in how people learn rather than in what they learn. This led to the search for and statement of the laws of learning. These laws, simply put, are those of repetition, of interest, and of the simultaneous use of more than one sensory approach. Teachers today know these laws of learning as well as (I suspect in many instances much better than) they know the Lord's prayer. They don't know, I believe, that these laws were worked out on guinea pigs.

Beginning earlier but not coming into bloom until later came the theories of the so-called Progressive Education group. I am referring not only to John Dewey's contribution—and to that of Colonel Parker and others ahead of him—but also to various other groups and persons who have been preaching the same philosophy. What this amounts to is the warning to the field of education that the laws of learning are not adequate to the problem. After all, says Progressive Education, we develop in readinesses as we go

through life and when we are ready to learn something we will learn it. It is rather futile to try to teach a child before he is ready to learn. It is similarly grotesque to think that a child can be kept from learning something once he is ready to learn it. This whole view is, of course, the analogue of the work with which some of you here this evening have so brilliantly associated yourselves in the field of reflex behavior. We believe that an animal cannot really be taught to walk until myelinization of the proper tracts has occurred. We are similarly pretty sure that somehow or other, for reasons which we cannot in any way understand, that the person must walk when that myelinization has occurred.

It is my purpose this evening, in speaking on the point of the third responsibility which psychiatry has to the field of education to question each of these three former views as to how the personality assimilates the cultural pattern. For the moment I should like to use the term "envelope" which is one that Piéron uses, to describe a sort of mechanism which lies at the periphery of the personality. This envelope operates as an osmotic membrane. All psychologists have said in one way or another that "we perceive that to which we choose to attend" (Pillsbury). And it is this envelope which shows to the external world the internal choices.

May I employ an analogy which Professor Lynd uses? Let us think of the individual as the city of New York. The older educational theory believed that there is such a monistic relationship between New York and Europe, Africa, Asia, etc., that there never come into New York harbor any cargoes that cannot be landed. Any cargo appearing in the bay will be accepted, assimilated, usefully employed. Thorndyke's work admitted that there are many piers around New York that are never ready for such and such a boat. Thorndyke proved to a willing group of teachers that if you only jam these boats in, somehow or other you can force these piers to fit the configuration of the boat—somehow the cargo can be landed and used.

Then the Progressive Education people claimed that this

procedure only apparently succeeds and that the damage done to the piers in trying to land the boat is more or less irreparable and certainly inefficient. Progressive Education with a sublime but blind faith in the general goodness of all things has assured itself that if the boats come up the river and are but willing to wait long enough, sooner or later New York will build out of its own needs the sort of pier that demands their cargo. Progressive Education is a sort of polite and yet subtle lying-in-wait upon the pupil—to pounce upon him at the correct moment. My thesis this evening is that the piers of the city of New York or Pieron's envelope or Lewin's valances are determined by the internal life of the city, and that this means that there are enormous quantities of material coming up the river every day that cannot be landed and can never be landed for any particular individual.

If this envelope is an osmotic membrane its readiness to assimilate material is based upon three dynamic, flowing processes: (1) The progressively ripening internal needs of the individual. These needs may be thought of as arising from the various dynamic components of the organism as it arrives in the world. (2) The extent to which previous experiences ("cargoes") and their implications have changed these needs. That is, there is a minute-to-minute and day-to-day alteration of the envelope ("piers") on the basis of the extent to which any one need has or has not been met by previous experiences. (3) The interrelationship of any one need or problem with any other problem on the basis of the extent to which these problems have respectively been developed up to the present moment. For instance, the problem of "belongingness" in relation to the experiences answering that need changes from day to day. But also this need for "belongingness" and its satisfaction is closely related to the extent to which the problem of certain quittances with authority have been answered or not answered at the present moment. That is, the extent to which I use love ("belongingness") to give my child security is one problem; the extent to which I use it to get things done, to compel obedience is another ever

changing and developing problem; each of these affects the other's development at any given moment.

To return now to the third responsibility of psychiatry. There is need in the field of education to set up some such sort of outline as I shall attempt to describe. Column I to a very large extent is psychiatric responsibility. It measures out of our clinical data those things for which the personality is looking. A better term is that it covers those problems which the personality has. Very important, it covers what—in terms of the needs or problems of the personality—the institution *means* to the child. Column II would very largely come from sociology and of course, for our specific task this evening, it would come from the field of education itself. It states the various things presented within that field which in one way or another affect Column I, or might affect it. The whole thing is a series of operational concepts. It definitely accepts the psycho-analytic assumption that each one of us sees the world and its people only in terms of the extent to which we have solved certain problems. Certainly Freud—and indeed earlier Charcot—saw clearly that the whole educational process is based upon wrong premises. The analysts on the other hand have quite failed to recognize two things: (1) They have not accepted that this process obtains for all human adjustments (contenting themselves rather with a simplification of one or two supposedly major problems). (2) They have assumed that early in life certain problems pose themselves and that the process of life is one of the solutions of these problems. They have, also, accepted time as an important factor in complexity. What I am talking about this evening is a series of operational concepts involving problems which are never solved. I am quite sure that we look for some kind of even balance between ourselves and our environment so far as security, so far as status, so far as authority, so far as some 16 or 17 other matters go, all the way up to when we die. Our "piers" are constantly changing. I come back to the earlier statement that life is not so much the matter of the adjustment of problems but one of the adjust-

ments to having problems. Life is not so much the attainment of security, for instance, as it is the realization that we are always searching for security. Each day brings new constellations but these represent rather transfers of tensions than anything which might be termed as "easier" or "harder" problems.

Which is all that I have to say. The responsibility of psychiatry to the field of education seems to me to open vistas which are of the deepest significance despite the fact that we psychiatrists have in large measure been blind to them. We have:

First, the responsibility of correcting such emotional deviations and of weeding out such misfits and of producing such classroom changes as will facilitate the happiness and emotional adjustment of pupils who are sent to us because of difficulty. This is nothing at all but a sort of attenuated state hospital psychiatry. It has gone to many very helpful and important developments. It nevertheless remains clinical psychiatry.

Second, the responsibility of using what the child tells us about the break between himself and the institution as a means of finding out what the institution of education *means* to the child. This knowledge will be used by educators to bring about such changes in the institutional structure as will produce less emotional stress and maladjustment in children. The child-centered school is only an empty name until the casual breakdown (as defined in this paper) painfully but accurately begins to tell us what the school actually means to the child. The problem child only dramatizes the problems of the child—he, and he alone, really tests the validity of the educator's polished theory as to what the school structure means to the pupil. This leads right back to the questions of the personality of the teacher (the selection of the teacher), classroom procedure, regimentation of groups, the balance between symbolic (word-centered) and concrete (experience-centered) education, etc. This is mental hygiene (that is, the manipula-

tion of social pressures to the end of conforming them to human emotional needs is mental hygiene) and cannot realistically progress without the sincere held of psychiatric knowledge gained from the casual breakdown, though probably the actual steps in a mental hygiene program will remain in the future what they are today—largely in the hands of non-medical people.

Third, the responsibility of teaching to the world what the process of learning is. That is, from what we know of the evolving emotional problems of persons and from our growing certainty that for each individual the world is seen at any moment only in the light of these same problems, it is our responsibility to show that a child can learn only what he can afford to learn. We can no longer talk about what the school *is* but rather what it *means*. We can no longer theorize as to what it means to *the* child but rather must recognize that for *each* child its meaning changes from day to day as the configurations of the child's emotional problems change. A moment's thought shows the extent to which this revolutionizes the whole theory of the transmission of culture. It, to a large extent, takes the emphasis away from the subject matter. It also turns its back upon the reflex-hierarchy program of the progressive education group, to boldly venture into the field that asks three questions: (a) What are the fundamental emotional needs and desires of children, what are the 18 or 20 fundamental problems in human relationship which in ever changing shape constantly modify their social adjustments? (b) In what way do the social institutions and their changes manage from minute to minute to transitorily fulfill or fail to fulfill these needs. (c) What on this basis is the child at this moment ready to learn—to get out of life?

The psychiatrist suspects that this is an important consideration in the field of the basic and early "academic" subjects—that the child's progress in arithmetic and reading is dependent upon the human relationship problems which he is working out with his teacher and fellow pupils. The psychiatrist

knows that this is the all-important consideration in the child's principal field of learning in school—his assimilation of the culture, his acquaintance with the problems of group living and control, his growing appreciation of the rôle which he is to play in his adjustment to and with his fellow man.

Teaching thus becomes very largely a matter of attempting to learn what are the emotional problems (and their degree of solution) of each child. I strongly suspect that when a child can afford to perceive something he cannot easily be kept from learning it. This means that psychiatry's third responsibility is that of demonstrating to the teacher that school progress is a matter of pupil progress rather than curriculum progress. The subjects the teacher teaches are really her pupils.

The fundamental question is as to whether education is to remain a process based upon the belief that culture is transmitted through teaching or is to be demonstrated by us to be a process based upon the recognition that culture is translated by the personality in terms of its own problems.

I cannot think of a single important social problem which is not dependent upon the answer to this last question.

The Implications of Radio as a Social and Educational Phenomenon*

By HOWARD W. ODUM

PERHAPS we may best approach the discussion of the implications of radio as a social and educational phenomenon through a series of assumptions. I should like to believe that these assumptions are self-evident truths, so that they may constitute a sort of premise from which to proceed to tentative conclusions.

The first series of assumptions will center around the nature of our assignment and the definitive areas and meanings of our concepts. And here at once the basic assumption is that major issues are at stake and that these social and educational implications must be searched out and faced more realistically than we have as yet succeeded in doing; but that full meanings must somehow be realized through a more effective bridging of the chasm between research and reality in which the social sciences and the physical sciences, scholarship and educational statesmanship must join hands. It is the purpose of this paper, therefore, not to inquire into specialized aspects of radio phenomena such as its political uses or its technical methodologies in the field of education, but to present the broader social and educational implications in the light of fundamental principles, institutions, and strategy.

The second series of assumptions will focus upon certain very realistic problems of modern civilization and of American culture in particular, as testing grounds for the new *technicways* of broadcasting. We must ask, for instance, in relation to present-day social tensions, confusion, dilemma, or in relation to the promise of social progress and welfare, what is radio good for? What can it do for society? What is it likely to do to the American scene?

* Read before the First National Conference on Educational Broadcasting, Washington, D. C., on December 11, 1936. This paper will be published by the University of Chicago Press as part of the proceedings of the conference.

The other two series of assumptions will relate to certain question marks of promise and dilemma in the ever broadening reach of radio and its application to education as a major function of society.

I

First, we seek to find the implications of radio in the spirit of a favorite question of the dynamic Franklin Henry Giddings, namely, "What else will happen or is likely to happen?" This question, he thought, was the most important that any student of society could ask, and it was the chief teachings of applied social science. War? What else will happen? Prohibition? What else is likely to happen? Multiple social legislation? What else? New Deal? What else? Technology? What else?

The search for this sort of implication appears to be more important today than ever in much of our science and technology, as well as in governmental and educational trends and procedures. In the case of radio and radio broadcasting there are both the positive and negative aspects. What else will happen if there is the fullest possible realization of this greatest communication phenomenon since printing? What else is likely to happen if, on the contrary, it transcends our *folkways* and *mores*, values and ideals, standards and culture-quality merely as mechanic *technicways*, multiplying stimuli, and speeding up the rate of change? Throughout our discussions there will be a sort of recurring motif in this two-edged assumption of the extraordinary power and limitless reach of radio as mass servant or master of the people.

For radio is first of all a phenomenon of science and technology. It is not only new and powerful in its own present status, but is developing, mutable, both creator and creature of physical technology, rich in kinship with all that growing family of telephone, telegraph, television, photography, multiple controls, potential master of new worlds to conquer. Radio, moreover, is also a great business and commercial phenomenon, exemplifying the great American tradi-

tion of what invested capital, utilizing the discoveries of science and the skills of technology, can do for the comfort, entertainment, and convenience of the people. Here, of course, are fundamental social-economic implications in this new super-Americanism.

Radio becomes a social phenomenon, however, primarily when it assumes a major rôle in psychical communication, which is the chief medium of all social processes. It becomes a social phenomenon when its ramifications and services extend to that wide range of activities and realistic experiences typified by this extraordinary program here today and tomorrow: broadcasting as a community enterprise; as an educational force; as a technique in classroom, in forum and university, on farm and at fireside, in rural and urban areas; when it broadcasts music and religion, industry and politics, recreation and books, art and speech, advertising and propaganda. It becomes a social phenomenon in America when more than 50 million folk in the uttermost corners of the nation "listen in" through more than 25 million sets, and when the whole world of English-speaking folk, through perhaps 200 million listeners, find thrill and drama in the troubles of an abdication of king and emperor.

Here, as is the case in the realm of the physical, radio broadcasting is prominently connected in the family of all cultural communications. Indeed, it is already the head of the house. Yet, its implications must somehow be predicated in relation to the newspaper, the moving picture, the library, the school, the theater, literature, and those intangible folk movements which challenge the world of culture and of control. Typical of the kindred social implications of literature, for instance, was the recent Far Western Regional Conference in San Francisco, where some three hundred writers discussed the modern writer in relation to democracy, fascism, new frontiers in literature, civil rights, censorship and suppression, labor crises, social backgrounds. And there were seminars on the novel, poetry, drama, the screen, and the social sciences, with representation from sculpture, painting, dance, music,

and the stage as channels for the dissemination of social concepts in cooperation with writers. The social implications of radio are, therefore, closely interwoven with all these arts and arrangements that "must search themselves in relation to the social scene."

Thus the social implications of radio are to be interpreted in relation to all of these social arrangements and agencies and forces which go into the making of what we call Society. And society, to utilize another Giddings concept, exists as a means, not as an end; and the end for which society is the means envisages a superior mankind in a richer human society, which is constantly ameliorating the lot of mankind, encouraging the student and the artist and the scientist, developing personality through freedom, and socializing the whole lot of us. What, therefore, will radio do for this great society?

Furthermore, our social implications, for the present at least, assume the concept and achievement of social progress. Radio is commonly counted as one of the most signal indices of progress, both in science and culture. Yet the social implication must be found in *human* progress which consists in the mastery by society of the physical and technical forces as well as the societal. Such progress assumes further a resulting social order and such human-use ends of these physical and technical forces as will insure the welfare and continuity of the evaluation of human society. It is this implication of radio in a redeveloping social order that challenges us now.

Our social implications, for America, go a step further and assume the democratic process in some form or forms. This means simply that democracy in contradistinction to fascism, or socialism, or communism is the particular social order which America has chosen as best designed to conserve, develop, strengthen, and give representation, liberty, and opportunity continuously to all those basic units which go into the making of an American society. And democracy assumes a certain homogeneity and common meeting grounds of the people.

This means—and this is a key to the chiefest of all social

implications of radio as a phenomenon of mass communication—that the people after all are the heart of democracy. They are not merely shibboleth and symbol, but scientifically, organically they are the elemental basis of all democracy. Center and symbol of all the nation's culture and capacity are its millions of vibrant folk. More than the mere census count of 130 million melting pot, they represent the living, striving, creative wealth, reflecting the epic of those "giants in the earth" whose episodes and conquests are perpetually reminiscent of the exterior appearance and the inner psychological realities of the American picture. If that sounds too much in the nature of sociological jargon or literary form, what I mean is simply that the human wealth of the nation is the supreme wealth; that the people are the ones also who exploited our lands and forests, moved on to new frontiers to conquer, set the patterns for our present discontents; and upon them must depend in the future, as in the past, the nature of our development.

Who then are these Americans in the new radio picture? What are they doing and which way are they going? What are the names and natures of those who pass across the stage, a vast multitude, mass and class, from the ends of the earth, some planted deep in the soil of the New World, some fallen on barren ground, some crowded out by the luxurious growth of unplanned bigness and complexities of modern life? Over there in cities they speak forty tongues and know nothing of the regions of the national domain. Over here in the vast plains some toil and spin in the heat of the day, some in the back-way places, some on the mountainsides and in the flat-woods, some in the richer soils of limitless land. And in between on highways and byways the millions of folk of village and smaller industry cling to the old dreams of opportunity for the common man and pray for the prophet of the new day. Other thousands move hither and yon, fruits of the new mobility and of the too rich harvests of unplanned achievements, homeless wanderers, farm squatters again, national nomad paupers, hitch hikers and freight train riders in multi-

tude, mass on mass by wayside, in flop houses, anywhere, everywhere. Other hundreds of thousands restless and dissatisfied, recruited from every class and type, maladjusted in the new crisis; and massed round about millions of unemployed, common man and intellectual; white and black, Jew and gentile, urban and city, with haggard faces and staring eyes, strained nerves and flashing tempers, loyalty to life, liberty, and loved ones, straining loyalty to law and order.

And in the shadows of the great American pageant, stragglers and clusters of marginal folk, gangsters and racketeers, kidnappers and crooks, gunmen and thugs, bank robbers and holdup confederates, incredible armies of the underworld, organized criminals, leaders and privates, entrepreneurs of a new economic traffic, a new generation of specialists, of artists and technicians, luminaries for the Star Spangled Banner. And still other dimmer shadows silhouetted against a quick changing background, challenging radio and all its parts to match speed with speed.

Yet not all of America is one, nor North, nor South, nor East, nor West; nor farm, nor backwoods, nor submarginal land and folk. It is not Wall Street, or Fifth Avenue, or Lake Shore Drive, or Hollywood, or cotton mill village, or mining town, or men in prisons, or Negroes in chains. America is not all industry; neither all urban nor all rural; not all white, not all black; neither young nor old, male nor female. Life in the United States is still of, for, and by the people who are neither all scoundrels nor saints, neither all morons nor geniuses. America is not the same yesterday, today, and tomorrow. Nor is all of America *American*; part of it is of other lands and people; so yesterday, so today, perhaps more so the day after the morrow of economic nationalism.

But whoever the American people are, whatever they do, wherever they be, they appear as never before both creators and creatures of the great mass power, the perfect laboratory for the limitless reaches of radio. And surely there must be not only education for information and instruction, but some cultural direction and equilibrium for the impatience

and immaturity of intellectual and common man alike: restless, resistless tides of people, resurging spiritual power of youth and race; mass emotions and folk impatience nigh unto flood tide.

Here, then, of, for, and by these people we come to the supreme educational implications of radio. For their education has been alike the inspired motivation and despair of American leadership. Universal education has been projected as both the means and the ends of our American democracy. But, in our search for the real educational implications we mean more than the mere technical schooling of children and youth. We mean more even than the 30 million and more people engaged in this greatest of all American industries. We mean that education which, to paraphrase Chancellor Chase, comprehends all organized attempts to advance human life through the finding of new truth and putting at the disposal of the people the best ideals which humanity on its upward road has evolved. We mean that education which society through its long experience of trial and error has esteemed most valuable in the avoidance of mistakes and tragedies, and in the building of democratic institutions. We mean that education which the people are willing to pay for and *do* pay for in the millions and billions of dollars and cents, whose budget, if we exclude war, exceeds all other expenditures. These expenditures are tokens of educational values and educational implications which may be the supreme testing grounds for western civilization.

Educational implications of radio here again are of two sorts. The one is found in the phenomenon of educational techniques in all these areas and meanings above mentioned. I suspect that we do not even dream of their possibilities. The other sort of implication, to refer again to Chancellor Chase's discussion of universities as vital agencies of civilization, is found in "the social importance to America of responsible freedom for the great agencies of education and communication." Here, again, the implications of radio as indicated even in our experience up to now in America, in

Germany, and in Italy have not as yet been adequately inventoried.

II

It is important, however, to project a little further these implications of radio as a social and educational phenomenon upon the present social scene, in order if possible to see the whole picture in terms of present problems and tensions, of present confusion and discontent, as well as in terms of the long look backward and forward, and in terms of sound theory and principles as well as immediate application. We may search further for major implications in the following assumption of fundamentals.

First, bigness, complexity, science, technology, speed, and change are the new masters, dominating the American picture as they have never done before. Masters they are of the whole incredible, and as yet uninventoried, sweep and drive of the modern age—science, invention, management, machines, cities, industry and business, education and government, communication and world community relations, social organization on a scale never yet attempted in the history of man. A spectacle of civilization grown immeasurably big and powerful, yet paradoxically being transformed through science and technology into an even smaller and smaller universe, and still again being threatened with impotency or self-destruction, constitutes a dramatic picture of exciting proportions. For such is one picture that is being constantly thrown across the screen to portray the extreme movements possible for an American civilization, reaping where all history has sown, gathering where have been strewn the factors of western life which have given new design to all our culture, and flowering into a gigantic struggle between the powerful onrush of science and the decay of tradition.

This phenomenon, however, is not new in the history of culture, except in its quantitative aspects and in the extent to

which *technicways* transcending the *folkways* and *mores* accelerate the rate of societal evolution. We are, of course, reputed to be, in the Spenglerian sense, at the crest of a cultural stage soon to descend into senescence and decay, or, in the Freudian sense, of a super-artificial as opposed to normal-natural culture. The supreme implication must be found in the extent to which social inventions and social technology, to be applied comprehensively for the first time in the history of civilization, can render futile these organic analogies so magnificently applied to human culture.

Implications of radio as a mass instrument for enlightenment, direction, or control may be explored further in the study of the rise and decay of great cultures. As best we can search out the facts from the opinions of the great historians, there have appeared certain constant factors or forces which seem to contribute to disintegration and decay. These have been expansion, bigness, artificiality, and stratification on the one hand and, on the other, a vast chasm of distance between the leaders and specialists and the people together with the exploitation of these same people. So, too, chiefest among the elements of universality in the emerging of new cultures has been the ever resurgence of the common man, a phenomenon of the folk mass power as a sort of constant in a world of variables. In terms of theory, there might appear a sort of axiomatic implication that whenever the demands and sweep of artificial society and super-technological processes exceed the natural capacity of the people or of a living culture to absorb or adjust, and when there are inadequate media of coordination and leadership between the upper and lower brackets, crises and maladjustment follow; and if the process goes on long enough, disintegration and decay.

There is implied here also a revolutionary assumption as important as Sumner's *folkways* or some of Malthus' population premises. It is that in the technological world of today the *technicways* transcend in a large way the *folkways* and supplant the *mores* in such degrees as to change the tempo of

societal evolution and to challenge society to the social utilization of *technicways* rather than to mastery by them.

This brings us to what appears to be two major crises and problems of the current era, in both of which also appear major implications of radio broadcasting. The first of these is that the chief dilemma of American society is exactly this problem of bigness, speed, artificial society, and super-technology which challenge not only the quality of American culture, but its very survival. These phenomena are manifest not only in the realm of physical science and technology, but in the dominant phenomena of cultural standardization, stratification, and propaganda, trial-and-error experimentation, fascistic and other modes of dictatorship, and by the imposition of vested and wistful *mores* upon the people alike by highbrow intelligentsia, lowbrow Ku Klux, and mid-brow advertising.

A second major dilemma is implied in a recent statement by President Roosevelt to the effect that those governments and government leaders who stray far from the life and interest of the people are not likely to survive. Here again we recapitulate this emphasis upon the folk as a sort of recurring motif in our discussions. The implication is, of course, that governments and institutions exist as a means of conserving, developing, and enriching the life of the people in whom reside both ultimate capacities and ultimate sovereignty. If we should attempt to state this theoretically, the implication would be found somewhere in a conflict between what we might call *natural* society and *artificial* society. This, of course, refers not only to our great cities, our great industries, our great machines, our great motivation of technology for technology's sake, as danger points but also to the spontaneity and happiness of the people, to the whole realm of biological vitality, the reproduction of the race, psychological tensions, and the great mass of implications found in the historical doctrines of naturalism, natural rights, natural law, and the inherent folk wisdom of the race.

By way of further illustration, we need not imply the

sylogistic conclusion of Freud that modern civilization has no chance for survival. I am not sure that I can interpret Freud; Chancellor Chase, here, used to be able to do it! However, his sylogistic reasoning would seem to run something like this: all survival both in the individual and groups in the past has been predicated upon conformity to the natural and organic. Modern culture is predicated on technology. Therefore, modern culture will not survive. Even if we should assume such a premise, the implication would still reside in the emphasis upon the concept of *unless* modern culture somehow bridges the gap between the natural and the artificial. It seems to me quite possible (whether probable no man can say) that in the physical and social phenomenon of radio may be found the medium for such effective mass communication and for the social mastery of physical *technicways*, which may, after all, be something new under the sun.

From among other major problems and situations in American life we select one or two from which to illustrate further social implications. One of these is the conclusion which seems justified from the data in hand that there must be a more effective reintegration of agrarian culture in American life than has been predicated by many of the economists and population experts. We do not refer to the cult of agrarianism which bodes no industrial order, but to the increment of agriculture and country life in the total national fabric woven of a well-balanced agriculture and industry. Pure agrarianism and undefiled, I should appraise, as being sufficiently unrealistic as to require some technology to give it enduring instrumentation. I have sometimes characterized the regional agrarians about as follows: "The civilization of the 'Old South,' if it had been what it was purported to be, which it was not, would have been a grand culture, wouldn't it? Come on boys, let's do it!"

We mean here, of course, that equilibrium between and among the various major parts of American life to which greater agriculture and a richer agrarian culture would contribute. It is not only that land is still the base of our American

wealth. It is not only that the seed bed of the nation's population must continue to be in rural America and therefore the quality of future America is conditioned by the quality of our rural culture. It is not only that the spirit and genius of early America was grounded in a vital agrarian culture, the nature of our laws and institutions assuming a continuity of such fundamentals. It is all of this and more. It is a matter of essential equilibrium and balance between agrarian and industrial culture, between country life and city activities, between physical resources and technology, between machines and men. It is, therefore, essentially a problem of progress and survival.

In order to make the matter more specific, I venture to protest the common predictions that in the next periods of American development agriculture and rural life, the land and the people on it, must recede yet further and further into such dangerous ratios as to make American democracy impossible of attainment. I venture the assumption that the enduring equilibrium in American culture will not be found in less than a fourth of its people and their occupations in the rural-agricultural area, but more nearly a third; that not a sixth or a seventh of the national income will be derived from agriculture and allied work, but nearer a fifth. Such a premise still assumes urban development and the increase of technology. We know about the trend to cities; we know about too many farmers already; we know at present that many folk will not abide our country civilization. But we also assume new skills in land conservation and utilization, a nearer approximation to agricultural parity, the aid of agricultural engineering, the development of chemical service to agriculture, rural electrification and power development, the upraising of standards of housing, living, rural institutions; the function of agriculture as a great reserve economy in time of national depression, and the working out of national-regional and interregional balance and equilibrium.

The social implications of radio must be clear here in that without the reconstruction of communication agencies and

other cultural resources, there can be no chance of this enlarged agrarian culture in accordance with American standards. With adequate communication expansions it may be possible. Thus, there is social compulsion here in relation to that planning which seeks rural electrification of all our states and areas. Such implication is far reaching—revolutionary, again, in that it sets a new standard and obligation on democratic education, perhaps now possible as a reality.

Something of the same sort of implication is to be found in the problem of American regionalism and in the trends towards regional development and planning. Here are involved many major dilemmas, such as the equalization of opportunity, the dissemination of knowledge, the redistribution of wealth through the capacity of the several regions to produce and consume, the problem of production for use, the factor of cultural determinism and quality civilization in a quantity world, together with the problem of equilibrium and balance between federal centralization and states' rights, a greater unity of national culture through the elimination of localism and sectional priorities, and the techniques of national and regional administration. The implication is that radio more than any of the new technologies can contribute successfully to this regional-national reintegration. Certainly, radio has great possibilities as a cultural equalization medium.

This regional trend leads us logically to call attention to another assumption, namely, that the nation is already committed to a policy of more comprehensive and realistic planning than has characterized early American procedures. By this we do not refer merely to economic planning, or the planned economic order, or to physical planning alone. Nor do we refer to the simple process of trying out ideas on the people. What we mean is realistic planning, based on facts and successful experimentation to provide design and motivation of, for, and by all the institutions and regions of this great domain. I refer to such planning as Secretary Wallace's suggested forward-looking, permanent, and enduring programs of agricultural development set in the midst of the

President's zestful next steps. The recent election may well be interpreted to indicate a willingness on the part of the people to continue forward on the same way. More specifically there are actually now in some form or other planning boards or arrangements in perhaps every state save one. These may prove, through regional arrangements, national understanding, and cooperative effort, an important epoch in American civilization, or they may constitute largely a whimsical episode.

It is important, too, to point out that the implications of social planning comprehend not only skills, design, arrangement, perspective, and technical mastery, but also the factor of purpose and *motivation* so much needed in the present era. Here, again, we envisage the two-edged implication of radio: on the one hand, without radio it does not appear possible to bring about that education, homogeneity of ideas and understanding through which a better designed America may emerge; and, on the other hand, it may not be possible to attain maximum effectiveness of radio without adequate planning.

III

Now, turning to a somewhat different emphasis, it is important to project the phenomenon of radio on some such screen of social situations as we have indicated in order to test back the purported implications. First, there is the quantitative aspect of the phenomenon with its prospective accelerated development; second, there is already a measurable index of the influence of radio up to now; and, third, we must point to the possible and probable range of its future applications.

For here is a phenomenon, reflecting a nation but recently with no radios, suddenly reporting 20 million and more licenses; a continued acceleration which gives promise that the 16 million sets counted in 1932 providing an audience of 37 million folk, moving on and on at such rate as to justify a prophecy of 50 million sets and more reflecting an audience of 100 million Americans by the turn of the mid-century.

Even now there are communities with as high as nine out of every ten families owning radio sets, and a whole state approximating two-thirds of its families so equipped. With the perfection of techniques, the extension and application of new discoveries in radio, with the development of rural and village populations and the concentration of community life, the phenomenon assumes the approximation of universal communication, in which all men have available communications available to all other men. If this seems startling, it is no more so than what has actually happened in a lesser period of time; and if these assumptions are correct, this quantitative application of radio multiplies the qualitative nature of its social and educational implications many fold.

It is not necessary, however, to depend upon future predictions to point up much of the realization of these implications up to now. Ogburn and Gilfillan, in our studies of *Recent Social Trends*, listed 150 estimated effects of the radio, telegraph, and telephone, and of radio broadcasting, as a result of an exhaustive exploration into the extent of inventional influence. These effects were classified under eleven headings, to include effects on uniformity and diffusion, on recreation and entertainment, on transportation, on education, on the dissemination of information, on religion, on industry and business, on occupations, on government and politics, on other inventions, and on a score of miscellaneous items. Within these groupings again can be seen clusters of special far reaching influences upon major social situations, such as upon country life, upon the regions of the nation, upon class and class relationships, upon the enrichment of folk culture, and upon standards of art, music, housing, diet, and other fundamental premises upon which our social implications have been based. So, too, these 150 effects, when subdivided, reflected a far larger catalogue, as, for instance, that effect listed as No. 24 as increasing interest in athletics, showed an additional 15 subeffects, some of which appear to be directly related, for instance, to big-time football with its incidental train of problems.

Rice and Willey, in their chapter and monograph on the agencies of communication, present important data on radio as an agency of mass communication, showing the number and distribution of radio sets, the great variability in the different states and regions, the contrasts between rural and urban, between wealthy and poorer people and communities, and the rapid rise of commercial broadcasting. So, too, in the publications of the National Advisory Council on Radio in Education and in the proceedings of the various institutes and conferences on education by radio, and in the increasing annual increment of bibliographies, there has been presented a vast and rich array of information which seems to offer measurable evidence of the implications which we have projected. And we shall find in the twenty-two sectional meetings of this conference together with the evening on technical developments in radio an extraordinary wealth of data and discussion as testing materials for both the social and educational implications and the practical applications of radio broadcasting.

IV

It remains, then, finally and briefly to call attention to two or three special educational implications which seem to me to be significant in this connection. We assume a tremendous expansion of radio education; we assume television and its possibilities; we assume a new adult educational technique; we assume extension in the classroom; in technical and agricultural education; in the techniques of political education; and in all those other aspects in which those who know best predict most. And we must assume what has been said so often and so well by educators and publicists, that in the magnificence of radio's power and opportunity may be found also implications of danger in which the perfection of its mastery may connote mastery over freedom and liberty.

The first of these special educational implications has to do with the number and kind of educational leaders required for the development of radio on the air, and the effect of

radio upon the general leadership and spotlights of the nation. There are two special aspects of this implication. We need only call the long roll of popular leaders of all sorts in the past to note the necessity for some sort of special and different leadership in this new world of adult education by radio as well as in the new universal classroom of tomorrow. It must be equally clear that there must be more and better leaders and students of radio as well as better equipped radio teachers and professors in the world of both secondary and higher education.

With reference to leadership in general, there is great contrast between the prerequisites of the radio listening multitude and the old leader who was *big* because he towered in personality, learning, or prestige over the masses below him. Also what will be the effect upon the great heterogeneity of the popular leaders in the future? And which way will the pleaders and the demagogues and all the others lead in the new world of radio? For here they are: faddists and militant idealists, pragmatists and dreamers, workers and drones, antis and pros—a great multitude leading the multitudes. Prohibitionists and evolutionists, anti-prohibitionists and anti-evolutionists, vivisectionists and anti-vivisectionists; dietists and nudists, vegetarians and perfectionists, pentecostalists and Christian Scientists, spiritualists and atheists, Menonites and Millerites, Adventists and Ethical Culturists, Holy Rollers and Theosophists, Russellites and Shakerites, New Thoughtists and quacks, psychologists, new and old, members of the House of David, and of other houses galore. And there were no respecter of places. They abide and abound in golden-crowned, purple-velveted New York or in million-peopled, million-dollared competing Los Angeles and San Francisco. They come from temperamental Louisiana or white-haired Virginia or hard-faced New England or hard-boiled Pennsylvania or West Virginia.

And what wealth and variety of leaders—call the roll of yesterday, today, and tomorrow—Lincoln and Washington and Wilson and Roosevelt, Alexander Dowie and Jack John-

son, Aimee Semple McPherson and Huey Long, Mary Baker Eddy and Henry Ward Beecher, William Lloyd Garrison and Oswald Garrison Villard, Harriet Beecher Stowe and Susan Anthony, Alvin York and Chauncey Depew, John Sharp Williams and James K. Vardeman, Tom Watson and Cole Blease, H. L. Mencken and Bishop James Cannon, Clarence Darrow and Dwight Morrow, W. E. DuBois and Booker T. Washington, Jane Addams and Ida Tarbell, Walter Lippmann and William Allen White, Herbert Hoover and Franklin D. Roosevelt, Charles A. Beard and William Green, Nicholas Murray Butler and Glenn Frank; the Vanderbilts, the Morgans, the Astors, the Rockefellers, the Wideners, the Andy Mellons, the Gates, and the Hills; John L. Sullivan and Gene Tunney, Babe Ruth and Helen Wills, Bobby Jones and Red Grange, Ruth Elder and Lindbergh; Henry Ford and Thomas A. Edison, Stuart P. Sherman and Eddie Guest, Will Rogers and Will James—but why try to picture them? Call the roll of the New Deal or of the New Literati or of the “Liberals” or of the D. A. R.’s and the sponsors and advisory members of a thousand committees. In ferment and conflict, tea party, revolution, Civil War, Sacco-Vanzetti, Dayton, Tennessee; Passaic, New Jersey, Scottsboro, white supremacy, humanism, technocracy, strikes and feuds—profiteers and chiselers, philanthropist and patriot. Of and for and by the people—the stuff that human institutions and human life are made of.

The second special implication has to do with the age-long conflict between the *folkways* and the *stateways* in which, whenever *stateways* are in conflict with *folkways*, the *stateways* always lose. This is true whether in health, child labor, farm and home purchases, prohibition, suffrage. Thus comes the necessity of modifying the *folkways* preparatory to the up-raising of standards, to the inauguration of better ways and fairer practices, and to the consolidating of social gains and progress through legislation and education. For the first time, here is a possible way through which the greater education can accelerate the processes of progress, at a time,

too, when the revolt of the masses may assume ominous proportions unless so educated and motivated as to conserve and develop a new and more effective socialized liberty and democracy.

The third special implication has to do with the *greater education* becoming more articulate and more effective in its research and experimentation to the end that it can match physical science with human science, technology with social technology, mechanical inventions with social inventions, and join together the cooperative efforts of the physical and social sciences. In particular, we need the same sort of policy and application to radio education as has obtained in the building of great libraries and scientific laboratories, in the evolution of tools of teaching and methods of research, in the long road of curricula making, academic freedom, and of endowments and appropriations for educational purposes. These great media of education were not made in a day or fabricated out of accidental weaving. If radio does afford so great an opportunity, and if the colleges, universities, city and state school systems do not equip themselves for its utilization through some such fundamental process of hard work and research, the situation might be likened to one in which libraries had been turned over to the publishers; teachers had been untrained and selected at the lowest uncritical bid; health and medicine had been left to quacks and drug stores; research had been relegated to commerce and industry.

There are finally two still more special implications. The one, as reflected in the above challenge, is that *education*, and the *universities* in particular, should acquire greater facilities and control over sufficiently adequate parts of radio broadcasting to meet the needs of the day. There are many arguments in favor of this assumption. One would imply that freedom for radio can probably best be guaranteed, even as freedom in research, learning and speech are now guaranteed, through making radio an integral part of the educational system. In this way, it is maintained, can be attained the best margin and equilibrium between private and corporate control

of radio and public service, and in this way can be guaranteed a liberal opportunity for the universities in the increasing broadening avenues of their educational service. The implication here is that a new epoch will be emerging in radio as a major division of educational endeavor, in line with the ever increasing realism of public education.

There is, however, the contrariwise implication, namely, that education, and universities in particular, leave radio broadcasting as a major function alone. The arguments here imply that the educational system and the university, if they become through radio a sort of catch-all, would neither conserve the high reaches of education and scholarship already obtained nor promote the ongoings of great university systems. The implications are further that radio would not be free here since the dictatorship of school folk would not satisfy the people. Moreover there is danger that it would add to the possibilities of ever encroaching totalitarian control of the universities and of education from without. The implications go still further, assuming that the educators have not shown themselves as yet competent to master so great a scientific and social phenomenon; and that radio incorporated by the educational institutions would dominate the scene to the detriment of many primary educational functions and procedures. Finally, the implications are that there is not available enough of laboratories, research specialists, and leaders to avoid great confusion and futility; and that there is not in immediate prospect either the plan or resources for achievement in this field.

The *Saturday Review of Literature* recently in protesting the Nobel award to O'Neill called attention to two types of achievement in drama. Genuine drama, it was held, achieves distinction by answering the question: Does it conform to the realities of living experience? Minor achievements in drama, however, are measured in terms of the question: Do they satisfy the current technical fad or preference in Broadway theatres? Something of this sort of test is implied in the utilization of the radio for education. Can it be made

to conform to the realities of social and educational needs, or must it merely conform to the fads and fashions of a kaleidoscopic and changing popular taste?

In the old days I used to hear my friends the musicianers, music-physicianers, and songsters sing a favorite spiritual a great deal. It was "Free, free, my Lord"; but always the chorus came back, "Yes, when the Good Lord shall set you free." Radio and radio broadcasting can undoubtedly become a powerful agency for education and for freedom. Yet the chorus must re-echo, however, "Yes, when we shall have made it so."

The Administrator and His Time

By RAYMOND M. HUGHES

YEARS ago, I read or heard a story of Clemenceau which pleased me so much that I have always been afraid to verify it. The story was to the effect that during the great war Clemenceau sat in the center of a large room at a small, bare table with his cane in his hand and his hat on his head and advised with soldiers and statesmen and public officials as to the conduct of France. He had no office paraphernalia, and wrote few letters. He talked, man to man, with the leading officials of France and her allies and gave the advice and judgment which ultimately led through to peace.

It seems to me that this is one of the best descriptions of the proper way for an executive to use his time. Clemenceau was not absorbed in busy work of any kind, answering correspondence, seeing trivial visitors, or keeping a lot of secretaries busy. Neither did he make speeches or travel. Through conferences with the leading men of the republic, he kept his hand on the pulse of the nation and gave of his wisdom to those who needed advice and counsel.

During twenty-four years as the administrative officer of a college I have heard much discussion of college presidents, of their value, and of the way they use their time. I have also observed a good many at work and have myself tried various schemes to conserve time and endeavor to earn my salary. Probably no executive position makes a greater variety of demands than the presidency of a college or university. Since there are 1,500 of these positions in the country, with perhaps from 100 to 200 newly filled each year, the best utilization of the time of these administrators presents a real problem.

To me, the position of president of a college did not seem to be one of major importance until a close observation of some thirty institutions trying to adapt themselves to the

Students Army Training Corps during the war emphasized the matter. Those institutions with capable, alert executives, who had the confidence of their staffs, and who were thoroughly acquainted with their institutions, quickly adjusted themselves to the emergency and acquitted themselves remarkably well. The others had quite a terrible time. It was clear at least that a capable, trusted executive in an emergency was most useful, and my esteem for my job rose.

I have seen many men enter on their duties with high ambitions of service to American youth only to find that financial worries or athletic difficulties consumed all their time, almost cut them off from contact with students, and entirely prevented their having any knowledge of the character of the teaching being done on the campus.

If an executive is to use his time to most advantage, he certainly must keep command of his time to a large degree and keep free from too much routine.

If he is to command his time, he must decide what are his main concerns about the institution and divide his time among them as seems possible and expedient. From the point of view of my experience, in dealing with institutions, his main concern should center around the following interests: (1) making and keeping control of the budget—knowing where each dollar of the expenditures goes and for what it pays; (2) knowing all of the faculty, if possible, or if the faculty is very large, knowing the most important members of the faculty, and certainly having a pretty clear idea that each salary paid is fair for the person receiving it; (3) knowing and keeping in touch with the leading students and student activities; (4) keeping in touch with the presidents of the fraternities and sororities; (5) keeping fully in touch with all inter-collegiate athletic affairs; (6) informing himself through the department of education, or through such other agency as may be locally suitable, with the quality of the teachers and teaching on the campus; (7) keeping in close touch with the Board of Trustees; (8) keeping in touch as much as possible with the alumni.

I have not said anything about raising money either from donors or from the legislature. This, of course, must have such time as is absolutely necessary but it certainly ought not to be a major time-consuming enterprise for the president. The president's first duty should be to direct the work of the college. If money is to be raised, he should have able help to carry much of this responsibility.

If one is to control his time he must be free from the dominance of mail. The best plan I have been able to adopt is to have my secretary refer as many letters as possible to other offices and bring me the absolutely essential letters that must be answered day by day. In a fairly large mail these rarely exceed two or three daily. The rest of the mail has been left and gone through once a week and answered. This can generally be done in about an hour and a half. It is a safe assumption that most of one's mail is of no importance.

If one is to control his time, the people whom he sees must be largely of his own selection. One plan of attaining this is to advise one's secretary of certain groups of people you wish to see and let her worry over which to bring in first. For example, if you are to see all the faculty once a semester, the secretary, advised of this, can check off those who have recently been in, and arrange 30-minute appointments with the remainder. It is surprising how many people can be seen and how valuable these conferences can be if arranged without preparation on your part. In the same way the secretary can follow general directions to send in the most able students, or the seniors, or such groups as the president elects. Fifteen-minute interviews with selected students are most interesting and mutually profitable. One does not dare devote his time with students to seeing only those who are in trouble or want help. To see the college clearly it is vital to see many students who are successful and happy in their work.

Some presidents delegate the preparation of the annual budget to a financial officer or to a faculty committee. By so doing they surrender a function primarily their own which

concerns every phase of the work of the institution and so brings it under detailed review at least annually. I doubt if any service of a president can be more valuable than his careful preparation of the budget.

A useful time-saving device for keeping in touch with the fraternities has been to give a dinner to the presidents of the fraternities once a quarter and at this time discuss, frankly and fully, everything relative to the welfare of these organizations. It has been surprising how much ground could be covered in an hour after dinner and how far such a meeting goes to gain the good will and cooperation of this important group of student leaders.

Athletics are a very important part of any American college today and however they are conducted they have a large influence. Sufficient time should certainly be given to athletic affairs to inform the president of just what is going on in this department, and of the standards of sportsmanship, scholarship, amateur standing, and care of the well-being of students that are being maintained. Occasional conferences with the chairman of the athletic committee, the physical director, the medical director, and the football coach are very informing.

How to keep informed about the teaching and the academic work of students, with very little time available and with something of a barrier of department heads and deans between the instructor and the president, is a problem. Inquiries of the recent alumni about the teaching of the faculty members, if properly made and wisely handled, are illuminating. If one asks students what courses they find most interesting and stimulating and, after they name the courses, follows up the inquiry by asking who teaches the classes, light is thrown on some of the best teachers. There certainly should be some one in the department of education who is interested in college teaching and can make suggestions for its improvement. If all the faculty know that the president is constantly concerned with improving the teaching, the importance of good teaching becomes recognized.

The most useful technique that I have discovered for keeping in touch with the members of the board of trustees has been to write a monthly news letter covering every matter which might be of interest to the board. Usually these news letters run from ten to twenty pages. Probably few of the members of the board read them from cover to cover, but I believe every one of them reads part and scans all of them. It has gone a long way to keep me conscious of my responsibility to the board and to keep the board informed on hundreds of things that occur on the campus which it is impossible and impracticable to present at meetings of the board or of any important committee.

The problem of public address is always a serious one for a college president. A very large proportion of the invitations to speak come from organizations which need a speaker, rather than from organizations before which the college president can speak with great profit. It would certainly seem that it would be wise to budget a certain amount of time to be devoted to public address and to fill this time with the most important engagements and to decline all those invitations which are not really essential. Certainly a college with so many human factors among students and faculty requires the energetic attention of a competent leader. It is also certain that a happy, well-satisfied, well-trained student body is the best possible advertisement for any institution and that it speaks much louder than can any college executive.

The Scholastic Ability of Secondary School Pupils

By WALTER CROSBY EELLS

THE organization, history, purposes and plans of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards have already been described in THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD.¹ One important phase of the field work of the Cooperative Study this year has included the administration of a psychological test to almost 20,000 pupils in 198 secondary schools, located in every state of the Union. A summary of the results of this extensive testing program should be of considerable interest and significance to those interested in the secondary school field, particularly to administrators and counsellors, independently of the purposes for which it is to be used in refining and validating the tentative criteria now being developed experimentally by the Cooperative Study. No conclusion regarding standards or accreditation should be drawn from these results.

The test selected for use was the *Psychological Examination for Grades Nine to Twelve* (1935 edition), prepared by L. L. and T. G. Thurstone, and published by the American Council on Education. The college form of the American Council psychological examination has been widely used throughout the country and is constantly becoming more favorably known. The more recently devised secondary school form, a simplified form of the college examination, is not so well known and no norms on a national basis have been available for the interpretation of its results. Such norms will be reported in this article. They should make this less well-known examination increasingly useful in the thousands of secondary schools in the country.

¹ See Walter C. Eells "The Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards," THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD (April 1936), Vol. 17, pp. 273-89.

Method of administration. The tests were administered by 10 men who had been carefully selected for the task on the basis of experience and qualifications. They visited the schools during the latter part of September and early part of October 1936, and followed a uniform method of administration, as far as possible, in each school. Wherever the junior class had more than 110 pupils, a representative sample of 110 pupils was taken, usually on an alphabetical basis. Approximately the same number of boys and girls were tested in the cooperating schools. In schools which did not have 110 juniors, this number was made up by selecting an approximately equal number of seniors and sophomores.² There were 66 schools large enough to make possible the selection from the junior class of all of the pupils tested (105-110),³ 132 in which the total number of juniors was less than 105.⁴ In 89 of the latter group the desired number (105-110) was secured from the three upper classes, while in 43 small schools the total number of seniors, juniors, and sophomores was less than 105. In this case all members of these three classes were included. A total of 19,737 pupils were thus tested in the 198 schools—3,089 seniors, 13,214 juniors, and 3,434 sophomores. Test papers were all sent to the executive office of the Cooperative Study in Washington where they were carefully scored and checked under uniform conditions.

Particular attention was given to the original selection of a representative group of schools of a wide variety of types. While the larger number—175—of the 200 included in the

² In only 24 schools was the difference between number of seniors and sophomores greater than 10; in only two, due to failure to follow instructions, was it greater than 25.

³ This includes three large schools in which crowded conditions made it impossible to test the full 110, the numbers being 90, 72, and 60—all juniors in each case.

⁴ Although 200 schools are included in the group of cooperating schools which are being studied this year, only 198 are included in the testing program. One school declined to take part in the testing program and the test papers for a second were destroyed by a hotel fire after they had been administered.

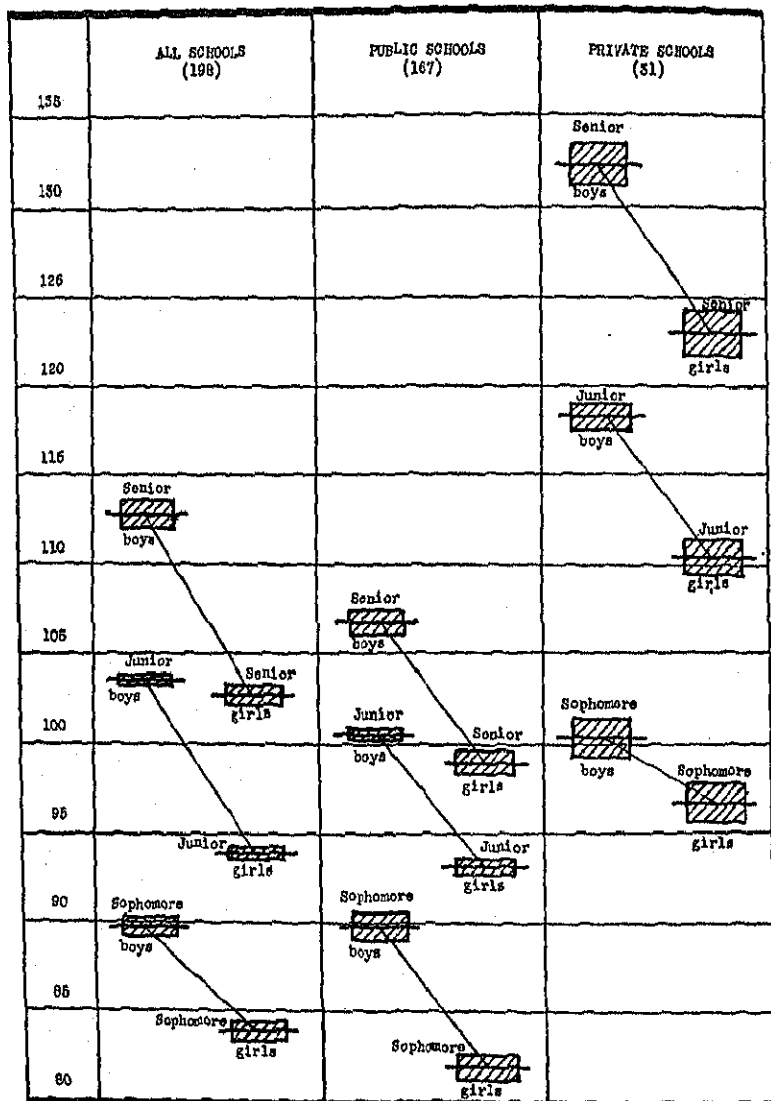
Study are schools accredited (or equivalent form of recognition) by one of the six regional associations sponsoring the Study, 25 were chosen which are non-accredited schools. The distribution of the schools throughout the country is proportional to the number of accredited secondary schools found in each state, varying from one to twelve each. They vary in size from some with less than 25 pupils to one with an enrollment in excess of 9,000. The number of large, medium, and small schools included is also proportional to the number of such accredited schools in the country as a whole. Selection of schools on the basis of control and racial type has also been made on a proportional basis among all accredited schools, leading to groups of 32 privately controlled schools, three Negro schools, and one for Indians. Care was also used to secure representatives of the principal types of organization—3-year schools, 4-year schools, and 6-year schools; of different types of communities—urban, rural, agricultural, industrial, residential, etc.; and of varying types of programs—comprehensive, college preparatory, conservative and progressive. Among the private schools are found both boarding and day schools, schools for each sex, Catholic schools, Protestant schools, and those with no denominational relationships.

Comparison by sexes. Marked differences in level of scholastic ability as measured by this test are found for the two sexes at all three class levels. These are exhibited in Table I.

TABLE I.—SCHOLASTIC ABILITY OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS CLASSIFIED BY SEX

Class	Number of Pupils		Mean Score		Difference	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Amount	Probable Error
Seniors.....	1,541	1,548	112.6	102.6	10.0	0.9
Juniors.....	6,517	6,697	103.2	94.3	8.8	0.4
Sophomores.....	1,661	1,773	89.9	84.3	5.6	0.8
Total.....	9,719	10,018				

FIGURE 1. MEAN SCHOLASTIC ABILITY OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS BY CLASS AND SEX.



Explanation. The horizontal line indicates the mean test scores for the groups indicated. The shaded area indicates plus and minus one probable error of the mean.

The difference between the sexes increases with the classes and is always in favor of the boys. Those differences are shown more vividly in the first column of Figure I. They are distinctly significant, the differences of the means ranging from 7 to 22 times their probable errors. It is quite evident that separate tables of norms for the sexes are necessary and desirable if the scores on this test are to be most profitably and accurately interpreted in the schools which use them. Such tables of norms are furnished on a later page. This significant sex difference in the secondary school test is distinctly at variance with results from the college form of the American Council psychological test in which little or no significant difference has been found for the sexes. The difference seems to be due to the omission of the artificial language test from the secondary school form.⁵ It is to be interpreted, therefore, not in terms of a true difference in general intellectual capacity of the two sexes but of the inadequacy of the test to measure adequately certain aspects of that capacity. It is probable that the secondary school American Council psychological examination will not be as satisfactory a measure for predicting success in foreign language study as in other fields.

The average score for senior girls is even lower than that for junior boys. Incidentally, it may be of interest to notice that the highest score made by any of the 20,000 pupils was

⁵ The college form consists of five subtests—two on vocabulary, one on arithmetic, one on geometric analogies, and one on artificial language. The secondary school form has only four subtests, the artificial language test being omitted entirely, and the others being similar in form but somewhat simplified in content from the college form. The writer used the college form (1928 edition) in 1929 in testing 6,279 freshmen in the junior colleges of California. The sex difference on the test as a whole was insignificant since it was less than one point in score (0.6 ± 0.8), the difference being in favor of the men. In the section on artificial language, however, there was a marked sex difference of 6.7 points in favor of the women. This would go far to explain the sex differences noted in Table I, above, which is an average of 8.1 for the three classes. See Walter C. Bells, *California Junior College Mental-Educational Survey*, California State Department of Education, Sacramento, 1930, pp. 18-20.

by a junior boy in the Far West and by a senior boy in the Middle West—in each case 212 out of a possible 227 points. Maximum scores made by any individual by classes and sexes were:

<i>Boys</i>		<i>Girls</i>	
Seniors.....	212	Seniors.....	204
Juniors.....	212	Juniors.....	200
Sophomores.....	197	Sophomores.....	185

Minimum scores for individuals in each class were zero.

Comparison by types of schools. Of the entire group of 198 secondary schools, 167 are publicly controlled, 31 are under private auspices. Marked differences in scholastic ability are found between the two types of schools, as shown in Table II. They are highly significant, the differences of the means being from 13 to 22 times their probable errors.

TABLE II.—SCHOLASTIC ABILITY OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS CLASSIFIED BY TYPE OF SCHOOL ATTENDED

Class and Sex	Number of Pupils		Mean Score		Difference	
	Public	Private	Public	Private	Amount	Probable Error
Seniors						
Boys.....	1,195	346	106.8	132.2	25.4	1.5
Girls.....	1,331	217	99.3	122.7	23.4	1.8
Juniors						
Boys.....	5,486	1,031	100.4	117.9	17.5	0.8
Girls.....	6,321	376	93.4	110.3	16.9	1.3
Sophomores						
Boys.....	1,320	341	85.9	105.3	19.4	1.5
Girls.....	1,553	220	81.8	102.0	20.2	1.6

These differences are shown more vividly in the right-hand portion of Figure I.

It is very clear that the typical private school is much more highly selective of its pupil enrollment than the typical public school. The degree of scholastic ability possessed by the average private school sophomore is only slightly lower than that which characterizes the average senior in the public

school. The public school as a rule is much more democratic in its pupil population than is the private school. This fact, of course, is common knowledge, but it is significant to have an objective measure of the extent of this difference in terms of scholastic ability. For example, over three-quarters (78.4 per cent) of the seniors in the private schools studied score higher in scholastic ability than the average senior in the public schools.

The implications for curriculum content and organization, for instructional methodology, and for guidance practices in the schools are clear. It is quite evident that the more selective private schools can and should expect a higher average level of academic achievement than the average public schools. This is strong evidence in support of the fundamental doctrine which the Cooperative Study has adopted as a basis for all of its effort to derive more valid methods of evaluating and stimulating secondary schools, namely, that a school cannot be studied satisfactorily nor judged fairly except in terms of its own philosophy, its expressed purposes and objectives, and the nature of the pupils whom it tries to educate.

Comparison by classes. The data already summarized in Tables I and II give the basis, if desired, for a comparison of ability at the different class levels. It will be noticed that there is a steady, although not uniform, increase in class score with each class level. These differences are accounted for, in part, by the tendency of the less bright pupils to drop out of school, but are due much more, probably, to added maturity of the pupils and their resultant longer contact with school work. While the American Council examination, like all so-called intelligence tests, is not directly related to the subjects of the curriculum, the results, particularly in the vocabulary and arithmetical sections, without doubt, are influenced in part by school training. The test will serve, therefore, very satisfactorily to differentiate bright, average, and dull pupils among those who have had essentially the same scholastic experience—for example, all members of the senior class

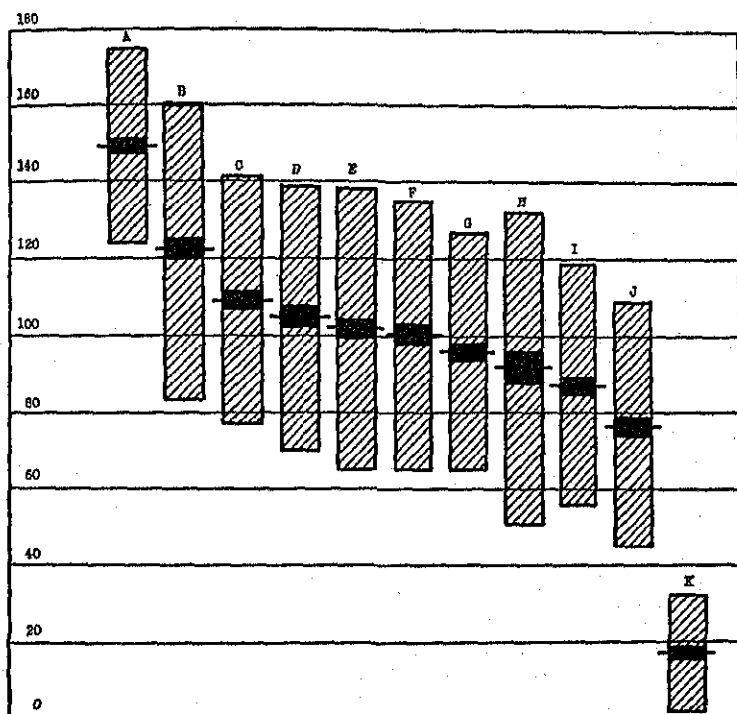
—when it would not be valid to use it for similar direct comparisons of members of different classes with varying amounts of school experience.

Comparison by schools. For several purposes it is desirable to secure a single figure, properly weighted for the differences in sexes and classes, to characterize the general mental level of the pupils in each school. This has been done in all cases in which sophomores and seniors were involved by adjusting their average score to an equivalent for juniors using adjustment factors derived from Table II, and weighting the adjusted scores proportionally to the populations involved. It will be noted from Table I that the average of the scores of the sophomores and seniors is approximately equivalent to that of the juniors. Adjustments on this basis have been made for each sex in the coeducational schools and the results averaged to secure a single figure representative of the school. The mean score, probable error of the mean, and the spread of the middle two-thirds of the pupils are exhibited in Figure II for 11 of the 198 schools so selected as to represent the entire group. These have been taken at regular decile intervals, from the school with the highest composite average score to the one with the lowest. Thus school "A" with a mean of 149.3 has the highest average score of any of the 198 schools tested, school "B" with 121.7 has an average higher than 90 per cent of the schools, school "C" with 109.3 has an average higher than 80 per cent of the schools, and so on, while school "K" with 16.8 has the lowest average of the entire group of schools.

In addition to showing the average or mean score for each school, Figure II shows, by means of the solid black area, the reliability of the mean, as indicated by plus or minus one probable error of the mean, and the range of approximately the middle two-thirds of the pupils in the school, as indicated by the distances of one standard deviation above and below the mean, shown by the cross-hatched area.

Figure II furnishes striking evidence of the tremendous differences in the scholastic quality of pupils of different

FIGURE II.—SUMMARY OF SCORES BY SCHOOLS FOR ELEVEN REPRESENTATIVE SCHOOLS



School.....	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K
Rank.....	1	20	40	60	80	100	120	140	160	180	200
Number Tested....	110	110	110	110	110	110	109	47	110	103	70
Mean Score.....	149.3	121.7	109.3	105.1	102.1	100.1	95.7	91.6	87.3	77.4	16.8
Standard Deviation..	25.0	38.8	32.2	35.4	37.2	34.9	31.1	40.4	31.7	32.0	14.8
Probable Error of the Mean.....	1.6	2.5	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.2	2.0	4.0	2.0	2.1	1.2

Explanation

The heavy horizontal central line, projecting on either side of the rectangle, shows the mean score for the school. The solid black area indicates plus or minus one probable error of the mean. The top and bottom of the shaded rectangle indicates one standard deviation above and below the mean. Approximately two-thirds of the cases in each school will be found within these shaded limits, one-sixth of them above the upper limit, and one-sixth of them below the lower limit. Thus for school "A" the mean is 149.3, with a probable error of 1.6 and a standard deviation of 25.0. Approximately two-thirds of the scores in this school are between 174.3 and 124.3, one-sixth of them above 174.3, and one-sixth of them below 124.3.

types in different parts of the country. The upper five-sixths of the pupils in school "A" are superior in scholastic ability to the average of those in school "B." They are superior to the lower five-sixths of those in school "I" and to all of those in school "K." All but one of the pupils in school "K" are inferior in scholastic ability to the average of those in school "J." The lowest score in school "A" (92) was higher than the highest score (91) in school "K." The differences are not so striking, of course, between the schools in the central portion of the distribution, but they are distinctly discernible. Of course, there is no significant difference between the schools which rank 160 and 161 for instance, but there is a decided difference between numbers 160 and 180. The differences are not strikingly great for the schools comprising the middle 60 per cent of the group (numbers 40 to 160), but much more marked between the schools comprising the higher 20 per cent (1 to 40), or the lower 20 per cent (161 to 200),^o and, of course, very marked between these two extreme groups. Figure II gives additional evidence of the importance of each school's adjusting its educational program and procedure to the needs and capacities of its pupils, also of the necessity of evaluating such a school in terms of the nature of its pupil population. Attention should also be drawn to the wide variation of abilities within each school, as indicated by the range of the middle two-thirds of the scores.

When the schools are thus ranked, further evidence is furnished of the marked superiority of most of the private schools in terms of the ability of their pupil material. Half of the group of 32 private schools are found among the first 25 on the list. A large public school is number 4; all others from 1 to 12, inclusive, are private schools. On the other hand, numbers 170, 192, and 194 are also private schools.

^o To facilitate comparisons with other groups of data it has been necessary to assign arbitrary ranks to the two schools for which test data are missing. To do this the missing private school was given a score equal to the mean of all the private boys' schools and the missing public school was given a score equal to the mean of the public schools in its regional group.

Comparisons by size. If the schools are classified by size, the comparisons shown in Table III result.

TABLE III.—SCHOLASTIC ABILITY OF PUPILS CLASSIFIED BY SIZE OF SCHOOL ATTENDED

Schools	Schools			Pupils			Mean Score		
	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private
All Schools.....	198	167	31	19,737	17,206	2,531	98.4	95.6	113.8
Very small..... (0-199)	73	54	19	6,125	4,912	1,213	97.0	90.4	115.7
Small..... (200-499)	60	52	8	6,586	5,708	878	97.4	95.7	107.8
Medium..... (500-999)	30	26	4	3,273	2,833	440	97.7	94.7	116.9
Large..... (Over 1000)	35	35	0	3,753	3,753	0	104.1	104.1	...

If the entire group of schools is considered, there are no significant differences between the three groups of smaller schools, but a marked difference between schools having over 1,000 pupils and those having less than that number. If the private schools are separated from the public schools, however, the very small public schools with enrollments under 200 are yet more distinctly inferior to the others.

Comparison by accreditation. A comparison of mean scores for the accredited and non-accredited schools is shown in Table IV.

TABLE IV.—SCHOLASTIC ABILITY OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS CLASSIFIED BY ATTENDANCE AT ACCREDITED OR NON-ACCREDITED SCHOOLS

Type	Schools			Mean Score		
	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private
Accredited.....	173	147	26	100.0	97.4	114.4
Non-accredited.....	25	20	5	88.0	82.2	110.8

The general level of scholastic ability in the accredited schools, is distinctly higher than in the non-accredited schools, but wide variations are found between schools. For example,

five of the non-accredited schools are among the first quarter of the entire group, ranking 9, 10, 11, 14, and 49. Three are in the second quarter, six in the third quarter, and eleven in the lowest quarter. Six of these eleven rank 192, 195, 197, 199, and 200.

Comparisons by regions. The schools may also be classified according to the regional associations in whose territories they are located. Such a classification yields the results shown in Table V.⁷

TABLE V.—SCHOLASTIC ABILITY OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO REGIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

Regional Groups	Schools			Pupils			Mean Score		
	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private
All Schools.....	198	167	31	19,737	17,206	2,531	98.4	95.6	113.8
New England.....	19	15	4	2,012	1,615	397	104.2	103.0	109.0
Middle States.....	22	13	7	2,277	1,640	637	112.1	103.4	130.6
North Central.....	89	78	11	8,834	8,044	790	99.3	97.4	112.7
Southern.....	43	36	7	4,128	3,612	516	84.0	81.3	97.4
Northwest.....	16	16	0	1,566	1,566	0	104.1	104.1	
Western.....	9	7	2	920	729	191	104.0	97.1	127.8

For the entire group of schools, the Middle States rank highest due to the high level of ability in the private schools which constitute a third of the schools studied in this area. For the public schools, the Northwest stands highest but with little difference between its schools and those of the Middle States or New England. Among the private schools, those in the Middle States and Western groups are distinctly above the others.

⁷ NEW ENGLAND: Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont. MIDDLE STATES: Delaware, District of Columbia, Maryland, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania. NORTH CENTRAL: Arizona, Arkansas, Colorado, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, New Mexico, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Dakota, West Virginia, Wisconsin, Wyoming. SOUTHERN: Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia. NORTHWEST: Idaho, Montana, Nevada, Oregon, Utah, Washington. WESTERN: California.

Norms. In Table VI are given norms for the three classes, by sexes, and also for the total membership of each class without regard to sex. Due to the marked sex differences pointed out earlier, it will be better as a rule to use the norms by sexes, rather than those in the column headed "Total," but the latter may be useful occasionally.

These percentile norms are to be used as in similar tables, e.g., a score of 105 is as good as or better than that made by 73.9 per cent of all sophomores, by 71.1 per cent of sophomore boys, by 76.5 per cent of sophomore girls, by 61.2 per cent of all juniors, and so forth.

TABLE VI.—NATIONAL NORMS FOR AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION PSYCHOLOGICAL EXAMINATION FOR GRADES NINE TO TWELVE (1935 edition)

	Sophomores			Juniors			Seniors		
	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls
No. of cases...	3,434	1,661	1,773	13,214	6,517	6,697	3,089	1,541	1,548
Mean.....	86.98	89.87	84.27	98.70	103.19	94.34	107.55	112.55	102.58
Sigma.....	35.15	36.51	33.60	36.61	38.00	34.65	38.25	39.90	35.88
Percentile norms:									
<i>Scores</i>									
2059998	.9997	.9999	.999	.999	.999
1959992	.9986	.9997	.998	.997	.999
185	.999	.998	.999	.997	.996	.999	.992	.988	.996
175	.997	.995	.998	.992	.986	.997	.977	.965	.989
165	.990	.984	.995	.978	.964	.990	.950	.937	.977
155	.980	.967	.992	.952	.927	.976	.917	.873	.961
145	.959	.940	.977	.913	.877	.947	.861	.813	.908
135	.923	.893	.950	.859	.816	.900	.788	.737	.838
125	.872	.840	.902	.790	.738	.839	.704	.648	.759
115	.815	.784	.843	.709	.657	.760	.611	.559	.662
105	.739	.711	.765	.612	.562	.661	.515	.459	.570
95	.644	.617	.669	.515	.471	.557	.417	.365	.468
85	.548	.531	.564	.414	.379	.448	.327	.286	.368
75	.444	.429	.458	.322	.295	.348	.247	.223	.271
65	.347	.326	.367	.239	.219	.259	.177	.158	.196
55	.252	.239	.264	.163	.146	.179	.119	.111	.127
45	.162	.152	.172	.098	.087	.109	.079	.076	.083
35	.087	.073	.101	.050	.041	.059	.040	.040	.040
25	.032	.026	.037	.022	.015	.028	.016	.015	.016
15	.010	.006	.014	.006	.004	.009	.007	.006	.008
5	.002	.001	.004	.001	.001	.002	.003	.002	.005

Accuracy and costs of scoring. Five scorers, with a sixth working less than half time, scored and checked the entire group of tests in a little over a month. At first the scoring of every tenth paper was completely checked for accuracy in an effort to reduce the percentage of error to less than one-half of 1 per cent. As this aim was achieved for the different scorers the number of papers rescored was reduced to one in every 20 and later one in every 40. Over 5 per cent of the papers were fully checked. These indicate that the percentage of error in scoring the entire set was less than four-tenths of 1 per cent. The additions of all part-scores were checked. Of the total time required, 84 per cent was taken for scoring, 9 per cent for checking the scoring, and 7 per cent for checking additions of part scores.

For the first week the average number of tests scored per hour by each scorer was only 21, but practice and familiarity with the keys soon increased both speed and accuracy significantly. The average number of tests scored per hour during the final week was 30; for the entire period 27. At 60 cents per hour the cost of scoring the test blanks was thus only slightly in excess of 2 cents each. The checking described above added less than a half cent per paper to the cost. These figures do not include the cost of summarizing and analyzing the scores for subsequent use in this article and for the other purposes of the study.

Variations in intelligence. If evidence is desired of variations in intelligence in addition to that furnished by the statistical summaries given above, it can readily be furnished by a consideration of the variability in the answers to individual questions given by the pupils tested. Space permits but a single illustrative case of many which were found in scoring these papers. For example, when the authors of the test asked for the best word, preferably of five letters, suggested by the description "a kind of heavenly body having a long nebulous train or tail" it is probable they hardly expected to get in addition to "comet," the answer recognized by the key, the following weird array of terms: angel, alli-

gator, beetle, bird, bride, cyclone, dragon, dress, devil, dinosaur, engine, ghost, goose, gown, jellyfish, lion, saint, satin, shark, skunk, snake, tiger, truck, Venus, and wedding. Young America evidently is versatile in ideas if not always highly intelligent! Such a list as this is interesting material for a study of word association even if it cannot be given a very high score in a test of scholastic ability.

A Plea for Presidents

By PARKE R. KOLBE

FOR better or for worse our western civilization has brought forth the American College—and the American college president. Some virtue must inhere in both, else we should hardly have permitted them to exist so long or to multiply so rapidly. The American college president of today is unique as the only laborer in the land who has not organized himself and his fellows into some sort of mutual protective association. He knows no unity of purpose comparable to that of the labor union, the Chamber of Commerce, or the Association of University Professors. Like Kipling's cat, he walks alone save for an occasional (and often rather ineffectual) meeting where educational papers are read. If he treats a professor with seeming injustice, he is investigated and sometimes boycotted. If a professor breaks *his* contract with the president at the eleventh hour, the latter grins and bears it with whatever equanimity he may muster. I bring forward these things to prove my point, namely, that the college president is far from being the formidable creature which he sometimes appears to be. He is merely an individual who has not been wise enough to band his kind together for mutual support. This, of course, is no one's fault but his own and he must as a result take the consequences—which he usually does.

When the American Council on Education was formed during the war period under its original name, "Emergency Council on Education," it was an organization of national educational associations, largely represented by college presidents whom the crisis had temporarily convinced of the necessity for coordinated action. It was the logical successor of such preliminary efforts as the Intercollegiate Intelligence Bureau, organized by Dean McClellan of the University of Pennsylvania, and the Committee on Engineering and Education headed by President Godfrey of Drexel Institute, under the

Council of National Defense. Apparently a world war was needed to reverse the centrifugal forces which had hitherto governed the sphere of academic administration. At any rate the plan worked brilliantly for the duration of the emergency. When that troublous time was past most of us returned to our accustomed way of doing our accustomed jobs, and the newly named American Council on Education was left to determine just what it ought to do for higher education at large.

If the problems of the college president no longer occupy the center of the stage in American Council activities, no one but the college president himself is to blame. Perhaps it was a revulsion from the compulsions of war or perhaps it was mere indifference, but the fact remains that college presidents, with a few notable exceptions, left the American Council to shift for itself when the war crisis had passed. But few of them attended the annual meetings and a considerable number of institutions maintained but a nominal connection with the Council's activities, although institutional membership had been provided for as early as December 1918. Too much praise cannot be given to the devoted service of the Council's Directors—Dr. Capen, Dr. Mann, and Dr. Zook—for the survival of the organization and for the wide sphere of increasing influence which it exercises in the educational world today. Yet as a college president I cannot help feeling that I have lost something in the virtual disappearance of that closer association which existed between my colleagues and me in the days of the war, when we met frequently and intimately for the discussion and solution of our mutual problems.

The American Council of today, as compared with the Emergency Council of nearly twenty years ago, represents the natural development of an idea. Faced as it was at the end of the war period with the necessity of finding new activities to justify its continued existence, the Council naturally surveyed the whole field of higher education and attempted to institute various types of service which would be directly useful not only to its original founders, but also to the whole wide field of learning represented by its members. Gradually its

membership became more and more diversified and its field of service, which had begun largely with the immediate problems of the college president in his relation to the national crisis, was extended to cover not only all of higher education but, recently, the entire field of education in its various levels. The ugly duckling of the war period has grown almost beyond the recognition of its original sponsors. How truly representative of American education the Council has become is evident from the latest available figures of its membership:

Institutional members:

Colleges and universities.....	314
State departments of education.....	5
City departments of education.....	6
Foundations	1
	<hr/> 326

Constituent members (national educational organizations)..... 29

Associate members (other organizations having work related to the interests of the Council)..... 28

Total..... 383

The period of nearly two decades since the establishment of the Council is contemporaneous with an era of intense activity in the science or profession of education. The study of educational methods, the development of innumerable systems for testing knowledge and ability, the growth of personnel work based on the principles of psychology—all these offered a broad opportunity for the extension of the Council's work. Departments or even schools of education grew up in nearly all colleges of the land. It is small wonder that the Council found in these fields a main opportunity for service. The popular appeal of such investigations was naturally strong. The educational foundations saw in them an endeavor of major value and contributed liberally to their support. Just what proportion of the Council's attention has been devoted to research in the field of education in its more professional aspects is not easy to determine. Nevertheless I have tried to analyze the recent report of the Council's Committee on Problems and Plans in Education, which, since

its creation in 1930, has guided the program of the Council's activities. This attempt has been made with the full realization that any arbitrary classification is open to serious criticism. However, the following divisions are offered with all humility:

AN ATTEMPT TO CLASSIFY THE ACTIVITIES OF THE PROBLEMS
AND PLANS COMMITTEE OF THE AMERICAN COUNCIL
ON EDUCATION

	Number of activities	Percentage of all activities
I. RESEARCH IN THE FIELD OF EDUCATION.....	17	65.4
(a) Materials, Methods, and Aids to Instruction		
Materials of Instruction		
Manual of Examinations		
American Film Institute		
Radio in Education		
Research in School Buildings		
(b) Curriculum Study		
Vocational Training		
Master's Degree		
Cooperation among Higher Institutions		
(c) Miscellaneous and General		
Government and Educational Organization		
Unitary Differential Traits		
International Aspects of Education		
Emotions in the Educative Process		
Post Doctoral Research Fellowships (in education)		
National Resources Committee		
Evaluation of Educational Research		
The Testing Situation		
Teacher Training		
II. GOVERNMENTAL AID.....	2	7.7
Citizens Conference on the Crisis in Education		
Federal Student Aid Program		
III. PUBLICATION	3	11.6
Publication Problem		
Handbook of American Universities and Colleges		
Dictionary of Educational Terms		
IV. SOCIOLOGICAL RESEARCH.....	1	3.8
The American Youth Commission		
V. COLLEGE ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS.....	2	7.7
Financial Advisory Service		
Freedom of Speech and Social Responsibility		
VI. COUNCIL BUSINESS	1	3.8
Reorganization of the Council		

The chief weakness in the arrangement just given lies in the assumption that all projects listed were equal in cost and effort. This is manifestly not the case. For example, the American Youth Commission alone will perhaps equal the sum of all the others in these respects. However, even a mere subject matter division has its value as an indication of the interests of the Council.

There are, as stated previously, 314 colleges and universities in the membership of the Council; hence, presumably, 314 college presidents who are, or should be, vitally interested in the Council's work. Research in the field of education is of unquestionable value and even a college president ought to be familiar with its modern manifestations! But concurrent with this interest are the common problems of the everyday administration of colleges and universities—problems which he or his deans and advisers are constantly being asked to solve. For this reason I am inclined to believe that every administrator has hailed with joy the Council's establishment of a financial advisory service, and will be equally delighted to have further study made of the vexed question of freedom of speech and social responsibility, for these things are among the common considerations of his everyday life.

Have we as college administrators been too lethargic (or perhaps too modest) in urging our claims? Are there additional services which the Council might render for our specific needs as college and university officials, charged with final responsibility for the welfare of our institutions? I am inclined to believe that much could be done in this field. I am sure that Council officials are always ready to open up new avenues of usefulness. The inevitable conclusion is that we, as college presidents, have not been active in proposing our everyday problems to the Council for consideration. Perhaps they have seemed to us too petty, as compared with the projects already engaging the Council's attention. Perhaps we have not been sufficiently close to the Council's activities to feel that advice and information might be sought here. Perhaps we are, after all, incurable individualists and see no value in consolidated action. However, I should be open to

the reproach of being a mere theorist if I did not make at least a few suggestions, not especially for their own value, but rather as provocative of discussion from which ideas of real worth might spring. Therefore, I am going to have the temerity to offer the following as possible subjects for consideration and study by appropriate committees of the Council:

1. Alumni relations, and specifically the duty of colleges and universities to their alumni. Why is it that so many of our alumni are interested in the superficial aspects of college life rather than in its more important implications? Is the fault ours or theirs? What can we do to change this attitude on the part of alumni? Are alumni organizations, as we know them, functioning in the right way? Should we not analyze their activities and make constructive suggestions to them?

2. Set up, or cause to be set up, an information service for trustees in selecting presidents, deans, and other administrative officers. It is a matter of common knowledge that many boards of trustees are unfamiliar with administrative personnel in the field of higher education outside their own institutions. They have but little idea as to how to choose administrative officers, and often make bad mistakes. Much has been done, originally by the Council, and now by the American Association of University Professors, in behalf of the college teacher. Why should not the Council, without assuming any responsibility for recommendation, collect and make available to boards of trustees a fund of information regarding possibilities for administrative positions in the college world? I am sure that the Council could do nothing which would more impress its value upon trustees who, after all, exercise the final judgment as to the usefulness of the Council to the individual institution.

3. Make a comprehensive study of the tremendous growth of student activities, and particularly of student government and its relation to the faculty. Included in this might be a study of the rapidly multiplying, so-called honorary departmental fraternities.

4. Set up a committee to study the possibility of closer relations between the Council and the various professional societies. The Council's work has been largely general or specifically intended for the arts college or the school of education. We have in this country a number of professional societies, most of which are members of the Council. They live in air-tight compartments. Would it not be worth while to bring together and compare men and standards in such branches as law, medicine, engineering, teaching, etc.? Special attention should be given to the rapidly growing boards of examiners for licensing in the various states, particularly in the field of engineering, since the requirements of such boards in any professional field naturally have a direct influence upon curricula.

5. Study various types of faculty organization and college and university administration, for the different types and sizes of colleges and universities.

6. Study the whole "peace" movement as it exists in the United States, particularly as it affects students in our colleges and universities. President Kent has justly called attention to the fact that our student bodies are continually preyed upon by propagandists from without, representing everything from the extreme right to the extreme left. I suggest:

(a) A dispassionate study of the existing movements for peace.

(b) A thorough study of the reasons for war, and of the best methods for preventing war.

(c) The outlining of a loyal and constructive program for furthering the peace movement in colleges, to be carried out by the colleges from within, not by outside agencies working through the means of propaganda.

These suggestions may seem both presumptuous and futile. At any rate they do not imply any criticism of what has already been done, but they represent, I believe, the feeling of many of us who are faced daily by practical administrative problems, in the solution of which we would like to have help.

Political Concepts and Secondary Education*

By GEORGE F. ZOOK

THE basic law of the United States establishes a representative form of government. It guarantees a representative form of government to the several states in the Union. In other words, it was assumed that a small number of men should be chosen for administrative and legislative responsibilities in the several levels of government, federal, state, and local. They were expected to exercise their judgment and wisdom as to the solution of problems even in the face of occasional noisy opposition.

In those early days popular government was conspicuous by its absence. Only a small proportion of the male population voted at elections. Even they were not permitted to vote directly for the president or for the members of the Senate and the Supreme Court. Slow and costly means of communication prevented or impeded the formulation and expression of public opinion.

With so limited a participation in government for the people as a whole as that contemplated in the federal and state constitutions, there was, of course, no widespread provision of education to prepare people for the exercise of civic responsibilities. It was assumed that each individual in the population had a soul to save and hence that there should be ample facilities for the preparation of ministers and even Sunday schools where poor children might learn to read the Bible. But restricted educational advantages were obviously sufficient for the education of that smaller proportion of the population which desired to prepare themselves to assume the responsibilities of government.

Then came that remarkable revolution during the past cen-

* The author spoke on this subject before the University of Illinois High School Teachers Conference, Urbana, Illinois, in November, 1936 and before the Conference of Secondary Education recently held at the College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, Virginia.

ture when the franchise was extended to all adults irrespective of ownership of property, color, sex, and in many instances even the ability to read and write. United States senators and a long list of state and local officials were subjected to popular election. Even more important was the rapid development of means of communication, roads, railroads, telegraph, telephone, newspapers, and the radio, which rapidly became cheap and speedy vehicles for the popular acquisition of information on all topics in every corner of the state, the nation, and the world, and for the expression of popular opinion which inevitably followed.

There are doubtless many political concepts underlying the beginning and development of American democracy, but I have selected only four of them to discuss with you, *seriatim*, as follows:

- (a) Universal suffrage
- (b) The right of individuals to hold office
- (c) Public opinion governs
- (d) Personal liberty and freedom.

UNIVERSAL SUFFRAGE

The fifteenth amendment to the federal Constitution declares that "the right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any state on account of race, color or previous condition of servitude." The Nineteenth Amendment contains the same provision against discrimination on account of sex.

While these two amendments to the federal Constitution are cast in negative terms, their positive implications are clear. They illustrate indeed the deep seated feeling developed over more than a century of national history that the privileges of formal participation in government through the suffrage should be extended to citizens on the widest possible basis. Universal suffrage while sometimes honored in the breach is thoroughly ingrained in the philosophy of American political life.

Elsewhere I shall attempt to show the importance of public

opinion in government as compared to the mere act of suffrage, but it may well be pointed out here that there is never simply one public opinion. There are always several, sometimes many of them, expressed in different parts of the country or held by different groups in the population. Hence the constant clash of opinion with one candidate championing one cause and another equally zealous in promoting another.

There are, furthermore, a veritable horde of names of aspiring candidates from which the voter is asked to choose. In spite of the obvious fact that a large proportion of the persons on the ballot are totally unknown to the voter, an experience which every person has every time he or she votes in an election, we go on year after year wrestling with the long ballot. Hence it is not surprising that occasionally we elect someone to public office whose name actually or figuratively has for some years adorned a gravestone in the local cemetery.

What now are the relations between the theory and practice of universal suffrage and education? What may reasonably be expected of the educational system in order to enable the citizen to undertake most effectively this simple method of participation in government?

The citation a moment ago of the two well-known situations is ample to show clearly that the best intentioned voter in the world cannot possibly exercise his right of suffrage intelligently or effectively without a background of knowledge concerning the position taken by each candidate on each of the issues to which he has committed himself. Equally he needs to know something of the responsibilities involved in each office and the qualifications of the several candidates to perform them satisfactorily. I give you some perfectly well-known examples. A vote for Abraham Lincoln in 1860 ultimately meant the abolition of slavery; McKinley's election in 1896 implied the adoption of the gold standard; and the choice of Franklin D. Roosevelt in 1932 spelled the repeal of the Eighteenth Amendment. For years voters have calmly entered the election booth and through their ballots determined whether the state was to be bonded for millions of dollars to build hard surfaced

roads, whether the local electric light plant should be taken over by the town, or a sales tax imposed instead of an income tax.

Yet I am sure you will agree that any of these issues and a hundred others which faced voters in the days gone by through their choice of a president, a governor, a member of the legislature, or a city mayor were worthy of the most extended study.

I think I can read your minds sufficiently to detect an impression now very prevalent that candidates for public office frequently cover up with a barrage of words their true positions and that so far as their public expressions are concerned, the difference of opinion amounts to about as much as the difference between tweedledee and tweedledum.

Yet if all this is true it only makes the voter's task more difficult. He must weigh what is not said as well as that which is spoken. He must wade through countless meaningless platitudes to get at what seems to be the candidate's real position. The voter must indeed be a very discerning individual.

Obviously, therefore, any approximation of success in democratic government through the device of universal suffrage rests squarely upon universal education. The elementary schools are not enough, for very properly they devote themselves largely to enabling children to acquire tools of knowledge. All individuals, not any part of them large or small, are expected to participate in government. All, therefore, of whatever sex, color, or economic status in so far as they are capable of profiting by it are entitled to the advantage of a secondary school education. Yet today in the face of this plain implication only 28.7 per cent of the age group from 14 to 17 in Alabama are enrolled in the secondary schools. The percentage ranges from this figure to 95 per cent in Utah and the average for the country is only 60.7 per cent. In other words, we have not attained more than two-thirds of the desired goal.

Under these circumstances we perhaps do well to recognize in many of our states one limitation on the right to suffrage,

namely, an educational qualification. An ignorant voter is a menace to success in a democratic form of government. But the limitation should be regarded as desirable only temporarily until such time as a state may remove the reason for any limitation on the American ideal of democracy through universal suffrage.

THE RIGHT TO HOLD OFFICE

The right of citizens to hold public office has been accepted quite generally for more than a hundred years as a kind of corollary of the right to vote. In a message to Congress in December 1829, President Andrew Jackson declared: "The duties of all public offices are, or at least admit of being made, so plain and simple that men of intelligence may readily qualify themselves for their performance; and I cannot but believe that more is lost by the long continuance of men in office than is generally to be gained by their experience." While we naturally hesitate, because of more or less bitter experiences in days gone by, to accept this aspect of popular government without qualification, yet there can be no question but that as a matter of common practice the theory still has wide acceptance.

"We spend more money and more energy on 'Education' than does any other people," recently declared the report on Better Government Personnel. "But when it comes to the selection of the servants of the state, we pay less attention to education than any other nation. We believe that education is worth great sacrifice, but in the public service we act as if it were of so little significance that those who have, and those who have not, an education are virtually on a par."

Interestingly enough the developments of recent decades have given this matter much more widespread meaning than in the earlier history of our country. Then there were comparatively few public officials. Today we have multiplied many times the services which we wish to have performed through the government. Hence a political concept which in earlier years could not possibly apply to more than a small proportion of the population has gradually come to have a

personal meaning for a high proportion of the adult population. Indeed, so great has been the increase in personnel in the public service that almost every individual sooner or later weighs for himself its possibilities and advantages for employment.

And the end is not yet. So great has been the increase through improved mechanical processes of production in agriculture and manufacturing and of the possibilities for distributing these products economically to the people that the proportion of our population engaged in producing the material comforts of life has steadily fallen. Some of these days we shall at last realize that a large proportion of the unemployed will not and should not return to the production of material goods. There remains then what ought to be accepted as the fortunate circumstance that these individuals can be employed in various service occupations, some of them doubtless under private auspices but many more perhaps in social services conducted under the auspices of federal, state, and local governments.

I am merely trying to drive home what perhaps is a commonly accepted fact, namely, that the proportion of our population regularly employed in the public service will doubtless increase beyond that which obtains at the present time.

What are the implications of this situation so far as education is concerned? The Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel, President L. D. Coffman, chairman, joins issue sharply with the philosophy of Andrew Jackson. "Whether or not this (philosophy) was true in 1829, it is certainly not true today. On the contrary, certain of those duties are now so difficult, so complex, so technical as to require the recruitment of highly trained specialists and the training in the services of the best administrative talent which the nation produces."

So much for the more technical and more important positions in the public service. What about the rank and file of positions in the public service? The experience of the federal civil service itself is an ample answer. In a high percentage

of instances even among the humbler positions a high school education or the equivalent has now come to be commonly required to qualify in the competitive examinations.

Hence, while in practice we continue to adhere largely to the Jacksonian theory relative to the holding of public office, our experience has demonstrated beyond question the need to modify that theory in favor of those with training and competence. In view of the large proportion of the adult population which is concerned, it seems to follow naturally that young people should have ample facilities in the secondary schools not merely to acquire general civic intelligence but to prepare themselves for the innumerable types of vocations now included in government service.

POPULAR OPINION GOVERNS

"Popular opinion governs" is a political concept thoroughly accepted in a democratic form of government. It is indeed actually practiced far more than most people realize. The casual voter who does not give thought to the matter is likely to assume that he exercises his sovereign right to participate in the conduct of government only when once each year he marches solemnly to the ballot box and casts his ballot for a long list of individuals most of whom he does not know very well. The discerning observer of a democratic society knows very well that the formal act of casting a ballot on election day often, perhaps usually, is of secondary importance as compared to the countless ways in which opinion on governmental matters is developed among the people and when crystallized is brought to bear upon administrative and legislative officials in Washington and in the several state capitals. The public official who in a representative or republican form of government was expected to exercise his own judgment on matters of public moment becomes in a democratic form of government merely the agent to carry out what the people seem to want.

I realize that this contrast is too sharp. Even in the palmiest days of representative government public officials doubtless often carried out what they believed to be the will of their

constituents against their own personal judgments, and today there are countless instances where administrative and legislative officials exercise their own judgments because for one reason or another there is no public opinion of any consequence on the matter in hand.

On the other hand, the wild and repeated protestations of affection for the "dear people" and the solemn promises to carry out their wishes witnessed in the Cleveland and Philadelphia conventions was not all "bunk" by any means. Anyone who has ever associated to any considerable extent with public officials in local, state, or national government knows full well that if the officials can further ingratiate themselves with their constituents back home by carrying out their wishes they will hasten to do so. Indeed the ascertaining informally of what their constituents think on particular problems by sending out a statement to serve as a kind of lightning rod in order that they may not run afoul of public opinion has come to be a form of political art well known in every center of government. Public officials who are bad guessers on public opinion are soon retired to private life.

I have a kind of feeling that when the matter is put in these unqualified terms you will find exceptions which you believe to be both fortunate and significant. The situation could not be otherwise. After all democracy in government is an ideal. Like all ideals it can be realized only in part. But it is nevertheless an aspiration close to the heart of the American people. In the long run even the Supreme Court bows to public opinion. "I believe," declared Theodore Roosevelt in 1908, "the majority of the plain people will day in and day out make fewer mistakes in governing themselves than any smaller class or body of men will make in trying to govern them."

What is public opinion about? Every conceivable subject which happens to interest the American people at any particular period. It varies from entrance in the World Court to local bonds for an airport, from old age pensions to cattle quarantines, from the decisions of the Supreme Court to street repairs.

Where is public opinion developed? Around the fireside, at church, through the morning newspaper, in the Rotary Club, at the headquarters of the labor union, on the street corner, over the radio, and in a hundred other ways.

How is public opinion expressed? In the same places through formal resolution, a public address, an editorial, a parade, a magazine article, and a hundred other avenues of greater or less importance.

So numerous are the possibilities indeed that the organization of public opinion has become a great enterprise in which thousands of people are engaged. There are the Institute of Public Opinion and the Literary Digest poll. The labor lobby and the American Legion can deluge the desks of congressmen with telegrams in twenty-four hours. A delegation of business men pleads with the legislature for tax relief. How to evaluate the wants of a vocal minority as against the inadequately expressed wishes of the great mass of people has become indeed a matter of first-rate consequence to every important public official.

Here again the implications of education in the formulation of public opinion for effective democratic government seem so clear as to need no elaboration. The character of the problems about which public opinion is being formulated and expressed is far more complex and has far wider implications than ever before in the world's history. The necessity of discriminating between the interests of special groups on the one hand, and the people as a whole on the other, calls for the exercise of judgment based on extended information. "A popular government," declared James Madison years ago, "without popular information or the means of acquiring it is but a prologue to a farce or a tragedy, or perhaps both. Knowledge will forever govern ignorance; and a people who mean to be their own governors must arm themselves with the power which knowledge gives."

I have emphasized so much the work of other agencies in spreading information and formulating public opinion as, in effect, to minimize the contribution of the schools in aiding the

citizen to participate in government. The omission was not altogether accidental. The schools have never done their full part. Years ago Herbert Spencer, one of the keenest observers of English life, declared: "The vital knowledge—that by which we have grown as a nation to what we are, and which now underlies our whole existence, is a knowledge that has got itself taught in nooks and corners; while the ordained agencies for teaching have been mumbling little else but dead formulas." What Herbert Spencer said about England we should regretfully have to admit applied equally well to America.

Yet today the schools have a basic responsibility relative to the processes of democratic government which no other agency, public or private, can possibly perform. The newspapers cannot do it.

You do not know Sam Baxter. But years ago Sam Baxter was my neighbor. Sam didn't have much to do except odd jobs of one kind or another. One day I met him on the street in the company of a gentleman who was taking subscriptions for the *Philadelphia Inquirer*. They stopped me, and both of them proceeded vigorously to extol the virtues of this particular newspaper. Sam finally climaxed his sales talk by stating that he had taken the *Philadelphia Inquirer* for forty years, that it contained all the news, that it was always right on political matters, and that hence he had never read any other paper. Considerably amused, I remarked that he should be ashamed to make such a statement. Then, turning on my heel, I left him half dazed, wondering what I could possibly have meant. I have often wondered since whether I should have taken the trouble to tell Sam about foreign censorship, cable companies, government news bureaus, international news services, newspaper chains, the selection of news and of headlines, pressure for editorial comment, and the influence of the advertisers. All of which color, modify, or distort the truth. It didn't seem worth while that day to attempt to disillusion and educate Sam. What would you have done?

Then there is that other great purveyor of information, the

radio. Is it a trustworthy device for the education of people to participate in government? Fresh from your experiences in tuning in on the Cleveland and Philadelphia conventions and the subsequent national campaign your smile is an adequate answer. Even our most trusted public men make the most astonishing exaggerations and belabor one another in a thoroughly undignified way. Owen D. Young did the country a real public service a few months ago at Rollins College when, after reciting some flagrant examples by Herbert Hoover, Al Smith, and Senator Robinson, he declared: "Without questioning their right to freedom of speech, without inquiring as to the sincerity of their belief, one may well ask whether such statements are a wise exercise of the great powers and responsibilities of trusteeship which these men hold."

We need, therefore, some agency which feels a deep obligation to preserve balance in the consideration of public problems—an agency which can take the time to lay the background in which matters of public interest are always deeply embedded—an agency which will strip the utterances of public men of their verbiage and examine critically the issues of common concern—an agency which is neither propagandistic itself nor willing to allow itself to be used to that end. That agency is the educational system of this country, public and private. For the great mass of people it means the secondary school.

But there are many responsibilities of adult citizenship for which no one, even as a student in the secondary schools, can possibly prepare himself adequately. Who could have been wise enough as a teacher a generation ago to prepare the adult of today to express an intelligent public opinion about today's social problems? Who would be so rash as to predict what our social problems will be a generation hence, or even five years from now? Obviously, under these circumstances, it is not possible for the schools adequately to prepare for something in the future which no prophet can possibly foresee. One must conclude, therefore, that a large part of what one needs to know in order to participate in government must be learned

after one grows up. In a few short years adult education has come to be regarded throughout the country as a necessary supplement to the work of the elementary and secondary schools.

PERSONAL LIBERTY AND FREEDOM

Older than the federal Constitution, indeed reaching far back into human history, is another political concept which is fundamental in American life. I refer to personal liberty and the freedom of individuals to pursue their own desires. One hundred and sixty years ago Thomas Jefferson gave to the world that magnificent document in which he declared: "We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights, that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness."

Our first impression is likely to be that the concepts of individual liberty and government in any form are in their very nature antagonistic to one another. Government seems to be forever encroaching on the liberties of individuals. The best government, so it has often been held, is that which governs least.

There can be no question but that the fruits of personal liberty are very precious and that they may easily be snatched away from us either through the decrees of a centralized regime or the subtle actions of a collectivistic government.

On the other hand, it is to be remembered that in primitive society where laws were few and government simple, personal liberties were also few indeed. Men were in bondage to one another. They were condemned by circumstances to occupations which brought them only the barest necessities in food, clothing, and shelter. They were at the mercy of disease and the elements. Judged by any modern standard they had little opportunity indeed for the pursuit of happiness. It is a mistake, therefore, to assume that the passion for personal liberty was realized "in the good old days." "Liberty," declared Walter Lippmann in his Phi Beta Kappa address at Harvard

University a year ago, "is not the natural state of man, but the achievement of an organized society. Liberty is a right which only vigilant and wise government can provide. It is the artificial product of civilized effort and is lost almost instantly when the primitive passions of men are unleashed."

A whole series of examples could hardly make the truth of this statement stand out more clearly. Yet we sometimes fail to realize the large number of individual freedoms and liberties which through the protection and aid of government we are striving to obtain and preserve. We want the liberty of going about the community without fear of personal danger. We insist on the liberty of the press not for any love of the newspaper itself but because of our personal desire to know what other people are doing and thinking. We believe that the opportunity to earn a living on a level consistent with the country's economic development comes close to being the inalienable right of the individual. President Roosevelt did well to quote a short time ago the old English jurist who declared, "Necessitous men are not free men." We will tolerate no interference with our freedom to assemble and to worship as we choose. We are profoundly convinced that each individual in his own way should be permitted to cultivate his special abilities and talents. Every individual is entitled to a generous portion of leisure for the recreation of his body, mind, and soul, according to his own peculiar interests.

These and a hundred other liberties and freedoms we are striving to realize through government. Through the government, police protection is provided against personal danger. As an agency of government the Supreme Court stepped in recently to preserve for us the freedom of the press. Through the power of the government a hundred protections are thrown around the right of the individual at work in mine, mill, and factory. If temporarily those opportunities fail the government itself steps in to offer employment to whatever extent necessity seems to require. It is the protection of government which enables men and women to follow their respective desires in religion and politics. It is government which author-

izes or sets up educational facilities which enable individuals to pursue every special aspiration or desire. Through the aid of the government we enjoy increasing leisure freed from haunting fears and full of opportunities for self improvement.

But government is only a device, a social mechanism which we use to attain our individual objectives and aspirations. In itself it has no intelligence, no power. As Ostrogorski pointed out years ago, it is like a great engine before there is steam in the boiler. It cannot move. It is inert and lifeless. Men and women are naive creatures. They are forever chasing a will-of-the-wisp in the form of a piece of social machinery which will bring in the millennium in government. First it was the political convention; then it was direct primaries. A few years ago it was woman suffrage. Yesterday it was prohibition. All of them, like the engine, are lifeless and meaningless without the steam of public opinion.

Morality and education are the two fuels out of which power and purpose in social life are created. They lie back of the government. They direct the path of all governmental effort. They infuse into the social mechanism spirit and zeal. They determine how far the government can help individuals to realize the personal liberties and freedoms which are the common aspiration of mankind. In a very real sense they are in fact the government.

To enumerate the countless ways in which the school system supports and develops that popular intelligence and understanding back of every law and every regulation intended to extend opportunities and liberties to the greatest possible number of people would indeed be like "carrying coals to Newcastle." Without the schools there could be no precious liberties, no hard won freedoms. I suggest that our political leaders in Washington and in the various states who worship louder and louder at the altar of liberty and freedom cease their protestations long enough to give proper attention to the fire on the altar. If their devotion to individual liberty and freedom is so great let them build schoolhouses as well as roads; let them conserve men as well as forests; let them be

willing indeed to make that investment in education which alone will keep the flame on the altar of liberty and freedom bright and shining.

One cannot possibly enumerate the ways in which education lies back of the various political concepts in a democracy without realizing something of the tremendous responsibility which rests upon the educational system. In a centralized form of government the enrollment in the secondary schools as in Germany may very well be reduced. In the United States every hope of success in securing the benefits of government lies in our willingness to make the advantages of secondary as well as elementary education both effective and universal. Whatever may have been the primary obligations of the secondary schools in the past there can be no question about it today. Several years ago Henry Suzzallo declared:

It is the primary and fundamental function of the common school system, extending from the earliest years of schooling through the kindergarten, elementary school, junior and senior high school and the junior college to educate the citizen for effective participation in all of those common understandings and cooperatives which are necessary to maintain the best in our complex contemporaneous civilization which is American. . . .

Secondary education will focus its attention more steadily on contemporaneous life, with its oncoming problems. The lag between what the school teaches and what present and impending citizenship requires will be decreased.

Education and educational leaders, therefore, are arousing from the lethargy of "dry bones" described by Ezekiel long before the time of Herbert Spencer. They are determined to accept the challenge which a democratic society thrusts upon them. They too are enlisted for the duration of the war.

Educational Implications Found in Great Federal Projects*

By GORDON R. CLAPP

I SHOULD like to discuss with you what seem to me to be major implications for educators and the educational job revealed in the workings of a great public program being carried on in the Tennessee Valley. Almost any of the major programs of our federal government could be used as a source of reference in a discussion of this kind; I select the program of the Tennessee Valley Authority because I am more familiar with it and because we are in a center of many of its activities here today.

First let me describe briefly what the Tennessee Valley Authority and the agencies cooperating with it are doing. The Authority was created by Congressional Act, approved on May 18, 1933, and amended on August 31, 1935. Its general purpose is to develop the Tennessee River system in the interests of navigation, flood control, and national defense, and to generate and sell surplus electricity to avoid the waste of water power. In its natural cycle the Authority's integrated water-control program requires not alone the proper use of water resources but, of necessity, the conservation and preservation of the land resources of the region.

To control the waters of the Tennessee River and its tributaries requires two lines of action by the Authority. The first is the construction of a system of publicly owned dams on the principal tributaries and on the Tennessee itself. Unified operation of these storage and main-river dams will reduce destructive floods, maintain a channel suitable for 9-foot navigation, level off the seasonal fluctuations of the river, develop a valuable by-product in the form of hydroelectric power, and secure an economy from multi-purpose planning and operation which would be impossible with developments

* Read before the National Council of State Superintendents and Commissioners of Education, Annual Convention, Chattanooga, Tenn., December 9, 1936.

having but a single purpose. Thus, the attack on the problem by means of construction, is intended to handle the run-off water in the major drainage channels.

The second line of action on the problem carries the Authority beyond the publicly owned streams to privately owned land—the source of run-off. Control here requires the co-operation of individual landowners in the development and popularizing of improved land managements and agricultural practices, thereby creating increased retention of rainfall in the soil to supplement artificial river control. These practices in land use entail extensive programs in soil erosion control through reforestation, terracing, introduction and widespread use of cover crops such as sods and legumes, and the utilization of new forms of plant foods. This means a general shift from soil-depleting to soil-building crops to support natural water storage, to reduce silting and restore fertility.

New plant foods for furthering this natural water storage are being developed by the Authority at its plant adjoining Nitrate Plant No. 2 at Muscle Shoals. Here improved forms of phosphatic fertilizers are being produced in electric furnaces using power from Wilson Dam. To supplement this, widespread rural electrification is being encouraged in order to provide refrigeration and to operate new types of farm equipment—all essential in this readjusted agricultural program.

It is this basic need for power for rural electrification and for operation of industries springing from a readjusted use of the land that brings together two methods of water control.

In this program of maintaining and operating properties owned by the United States in the vicinity of Muscle Shoals, conservation of natural resources by the improvement of agriculture, the proper utilization of marginal lands, and industrial development, improvement of navigation in the Tennessee River, construction of dams and incidental works in the Tennessee River and its tributaries, development of transmission lines, production, distribution, and consumption of

electric power, production of fertilizer, and the promotion of the general well-being of the inhabitants of the Tennessee Valley area, the Authority has developed an organization of management and service as well as construction and operating activities which comprise a personnel with a wide variety of interests, experience, and abilities.

A more detailed examination of what has been going on here in the Tennessee Valley for the past three years would make it clear, I am sure, that basically the TVA program is designed to make it possible for a people to recapture, conserve, and use wisely for their own general good the vast human and physical resources of a large region. You would also discover that the objective of all this activity can be stated only in terms of benefit to *people*—to men and women and their families or as President Roosevelt declared in his message to Congress, "It touches and gives life to all forms of human concern."

It is a reassuring fact that the closer the workings and subject matter of government get to our daily lives the greater is the interest shown by educators in the problems of government. Whether this is cause or effect need not concern us at the moment; the significance of the statement lies in the fact that the closer relationship between the government and educators suggests that the functional barriers that customarily separate government and the educational system are becoming less real. It is traditional in this country that government is looked upon as something apart from the people who confer power upon it; it is also traditional that the educational system although responsive to the will of local lay control is generally regarded as something isolated from the world of practical affairs even to the point of assuming that the professional educators in that system must not become tarnished with the grime and stains of the public forum, the market place, or the machinery of democratic government. Happily both of these traditions have received a severe jolt in recent years: interest of the mass of citizens in their government has reached a new high; interest in education as a single program

for all age levels has grown apace; interest in education as the key to improved government has struck a responsive chord both among professional educators and professional students of government and public administration. The subject of this morning's discussion is indicative of this interest in the closer relationship between education and government.

What can be found in the Authority's program that is of importance to us as educators; what implications has it for education?

In my judgment there are many implications for education of significance locally and nationally. They relate primarily to three fundamental problems that provoke thought and discussion wherever educators come together: educational objectives, educational method, and the content or subject matter of the educational process itself.

I should like to suggest that the TVA program in its manifold activities is in itself an example of true objectives in education. It is an example of the way in which we as citizens through our government attempt to teach ourselves a more effective way of harnessing and controlling the forces and resources of our environment. It is an example of educational theory in serious practice applied *by the people themselves through their representatives and agents* to the practical immediate and long-range problems of the region in which they live. What educator is there who would not welcome the opportunity to establish in a classroom or on a campus a real-life situation in which the forces of nature, the psychology of men and women, the elements of the economic and social order were under first-hand observation of students in order that they might learn through active participation what makes the wheels go around and through what controls desired results can be obtained?

Here in a region of more than 40,000 square miles, the people who reside in it, whose lives in the present and the future are tied up with the control and utility of a vast water system, the revived fertility and stability of agricultural land, the utilization of the by-product of water control, electricity,

and the better coordination of their enterprise on farm and in the factory, are using an agency of the federal government to meet problems which, when solved, will return benefits not only to themselves but to a whole nation. Surely in this program the true objective of education can be observed, namely, to equip us as citizens with an intelligent understanding of the problems with which we are confronted, the economic, social, and physical forces and resources *which by their presence* define these problems, and through mutual guidance in intelligent democratic effort help us to find and apply practical solutions to the end that we as a people will be our own master.

Let me describe some concrete examples. The skilled craftsman working on the construction of Chickamauga Dam, six miles from here, is doing more than building a dam. He is seeing a physical plan unfold that to him means a greater security from floods, an added avenue of cheaper transportation for some of the things he buys, a source of cheap electricity the use of which will make possible an improvement of the standard of living for himself and his family, and all in all a greater mastery over the forces which play upon and about his life every day. And I should add that by no means the least important is the knowledge he has that *through his own efforts*, geared cooperatively and intelligently with thousands of other workmen and supervisors, he, as a part of his own government, is helping to accrue benefits for himself, his children, and his fellow men. The benefits he visualizes, both immediate and for the future, are reality to him; so real are they in fact that he with others like him seeks and finds an opportunity to make the planning and results of the job in which he is participating more effective through organized contacts with the management in order that his mental as well as physical contribution may be made available.

I can offer no better evidence of the validity of this example than an excerpt from a brief filed with the management of the Authority at a recent conference with union representatives held for the purpose of carrying on our annual wage negotiations. This brief was submitted jointly by more than

a dozen unions representing electricians, plumbers, ironworkers, unskilled workers, and a number of other union groups. I quote:

We believe that management and labor are in agreement upon these definite aims of this great project here in the Tennessee Valley, namely, that here for the first time in America the people have set up a vast testing ground for the nation, where they can determine for themselves how the natural resources of water and land and power can best be developed and conserved and used, not for the benefit of a few privileged individuals but for the benefit of the entire community. We do not hesitate about presenting these generalities to the conference at this time, because they are the *moving motives of the men who work on the job*, and of the men who direct on the administrative side. To undertake to discuss concrete details of wage and working conditions without a glance at principles should be pretty much like operating a boat without a compass.

Likewise the farmer who participates in the experimental use of phosphate fertilizer now being produced for test by the fertilizer plant at Muscle Shoals and who under the guidance of county agents of the Agricultural Extension Service tries this soil food in a demonstration of the proper use of agricultural lands in a system of crop rotation, soil terracing, and diversified farming is teaching himself and his neighbors a better way to conserve, use, and master the land that gives him his living and provides foodstuffs for a nation.

In these examples I think we can see that mastery of man over his environment can be made to work as a valid objective for education. But it may be observed that the realities of the problem and subject matter inherent in such a program as the TVA offer opportunities that are not found in the classroom or on the college campus. To a certain extent this must be true, but at this point I should like to suggest another major implication for education as found in the TVA program. It is this, that the *democratic method* in education is a *practicable* method by which to relate the educational program to the real interests of people.

The democratic method, if I understand it correctly, is based upon a certain fundamental and abiding faith in people

—a faith that people if free and informed will more frequently than not do what seems to be right in the eye of society, more frequently than not they will find the best answers to their problems as judged in historical perspective. If one holds to this fundamental belief, this faith, he can without fear of result, bend his effort toward support of machinery and method that will give to each an opportunity to bring his mental equipment to bear upon the problem at hand. Fundamental in the democratic theory is the belief that as Ordway Tead puts it, "In group thinking the new ideas evolved are more than the sum of individual ideas." Leadership whether in the classroom or on a construction job is thus not a task of telling the student or the worker *what* to think or *what* to do and assuming compliance because the one in charge has spoken; leadership is the much more difficult task of stimulating ideas and motivation among those upon whom the success of the classroom result or the construction job depends, those who are learning and those who are doing the work. The democratic method assumes compliance with the will of the leader only by consent of those being led, with that consent flowing from an intelligent respect or a meeting of the minds as to the validity of the common purpose and the method to be used in achieving it.

The psychologist of the Gestalt school emphasizes the *qualitative* aspect of the mental process which defies a *quantitative* measure; he suggests that the result of a mental reaction prompted by a number of stimuli is more than the *sum* of the stimuli, that in the mental process itself the action and interreaction of stimuli and responses may create something not traceable to the identity of any single stimulus. The counterpart of this is found in group activity in which the democratic method prevails; resolutions of conflicting points of view based upon the merits of the contributed ideas very frequently produce more than a compromise; very frequently what at first is hailed as a compromise is found to be a creation of something new and much more workable than either of the two conflicting ideas.

Much has been said about the democratic method as it applies in politics, government, education, and various other fields of human endeavor. We can suspect, however, that very frequently the idea receives no more than lip service to delude those whose support is sought. Education by its literal definition implies that the educational process consists of creating a learning situation in which the learner finds his way to the solution of problems *through his own mental and intellectual effort* under the guidance of a teacher who helps to condition the learner. But we all know that too frequently we find the educational process characterized by dominating dictation of the teacher over the taught. These instances are found not only in the classroom but in human relations generally. Locate the sore spots in our national life where one force is pitted against another in bitter controversy and you will observe that one group is trying to impose a doctrine or a condition upon another instead of trying to find reconciliation of opposing points of view through reciprocal educational effort. Strikes and industrial strife are but an indication that in the government of industry the employee and the employer have not been able to base their relationships upon a reciprocal educational basis; the disciplinary problem in the school is most frequently the result of failure either on the part of the teacher or parent to make a sound application of an educational method which recognizes the integrity of the child's personality.

If you could spend sufficient time to observe the TVA program as it actually works, I am confident that you would be struck with a very important fact: in this valley-wide program there is little evidence of paternalistic or dictatorial imposition of an ideology or rigid pattern conceived by armchair planners and handed to those whose problems are the problems with which the program is concerned. Instead you would observe that within the outline of activities described in the act creating the Authority the people of the region are working in a cooperative and coordinate rôle through their own local, county, state, and federal agencies. You would also

observe that within the Authority itself the theme of its administrative organization is democratic method. In this fact there should be much of significance to those who seek ways to give substance and validity to the educational process, whether it be in the classroom, across the conference table, or in the execution of a program in the field.

In the program of the Authority can be found many examples of the validity and workability of the democratic method. One of the best examples can be found in the employee training program. This program has emerged as a constructive solution to a number of problems incident to a large construction program such as:

1. The need of in-service training in order to increase the efficiency of employees on the job and to enable some of them to prepare for more responsible positions.

2. The relatively large amount of leisure time, which results from the short work-week schedules provided under the employment and labor policy of the Authority.

3. The adjustments to new conditions of work which employees must make when beginning and when ending their employment with the Authority.

4. The desire for more knowledge of the purposes and activities of the Authority on the part of employees.

5. The general scarcity of instructional materials containing information basic to the programs of soil conservation, rural electrification, and other subjects of vital importance to the activities of the Authority and to the Valley population.

6. The necessity of providing elementary and secondary school facilities for children of employees who live in TVA houses at construction centers.

The aims and objectives of the training program have grown out of the existence of these problems.

We have learned through experience, some of it extremely painful, that unless the training program in any particular center is based upon the expressed needs and interest of employees and is developed and planned in cooperation with them, it falls short of accomplishing anything worthy of the

time and effort of those who participate. Any one of us may have excellent ideas as to what employees *ought* to be interested in, what they *ought* to know, how they should conduct their relationships with their supervisors and their work. It is essential, however, that those ideas find a basis of mutual understanding and consent with employees, expressed independently without the pressure of dominating suggestion from someone in superior position. Any attempt to impose these ideas upon them meets with a lack of interest and frequently a hearty and sincere distrust.

Thus, when the various skilled labor groups became interested in the possibilities of training apprentices in their crafts they approached the Authority with their problem. A mutual interest was discovered and in a very short time several apprentice training programs got under way, planned and carried on under the direction of committees made up of representatives of the personnel and training staff, construction supervisors, and the unions with advisory assistance from the Federal Committee on Apprentice Training. The democratic method in this instance not only made for speedier execution but, what is more important, there is reason to believe that the resulting program is basically more sound than could have been possible had the management gone forward alone.

In the planning and administration of the training program cooperative relationships of different types have been established with local and state educational agencies, such as county school boards, county library boards, and state departments of education. Within the Authority also, other sections and divisions and employee organizations are cooperating in the planning and conduct of training activities. Although these various relationships with other agencies both within and without the Authority create difficult problems, they present also unique opportunities for the actual application of democratic principles in shaping and administering programs.

Another excellent example of the workability of the democratic method is to be found in the field of labor relations within the Authority. The Authority has welcomed the op-

portunity to deal collectively with its employees in the study and solution of common problems through *bona fide* independent representatives selected by employees through their unions.

The keynote of the attitude and approach of the Authority is found in its official statement of policy, the Employee Relationship Policy. This statement was adopted by the Board of Directors in August 1935, after more than a year and a half of conference and discussion with members of the staff and employee representatives, most of whom were labor union officials. In summary, the policy recognizes the right of employees to organize, affiliate as they choose, designate representatives without interference or coercion, and bargain collectively with the management of the Authority. It establishes the machinery for the disposition of grievances and for the development of cooperative relationships with independent labor and employee organizations. It sets up principles relating to employment standards, hours of work, compensation, training and placement, sets the minimum age for employment; rules out nepotism; makes provision for the safety and health of employees; and gives a voice to *bona fide* organizations of employees in the formulation of policies, rules, and regulations which affect the conditions of employment and work. This code of basic understanding makes it possible to deal with causes instead of results in the solution of personnel problems. Through this approach an intelligent attack can be made upon those factors which too frequently prevent employees and supervisors from doing satisfactory work and which deprive them of that zest for the job so essential to high morale. It provides a framework of understanding and sets up machinery for significant reciprocal education and training between workers and management.

Implicit in the Employee Relationship Policy as a whole are definitions of two major responsibilities, one for management and one for employees. Upon management there is the responsibility to seek and achieve continuous improvement of the quality of supervision, recognizing that supervisors have

responsibilities as personnel managers in the wise conservation and use of the human resources placed at their disposal, as well as the responsibilities for the completion of a dam, of a road, or a research project. This responsibility carries with it an obligation to train supervisors in the technique of constructive leadership and fair dealing to the end that the project will be carried on efficiently with a dignity and humility worthy of the public service.

There is a responsibility upon employees to approach the job with more than average competence and initiative, to be self-critical of their efficiency, to suggest improvements that will work, to recognize that unless they live up to their responsibilities the supervisor who directs the work cannot live up to his, and to develop self-discipline in individuals and groups on the job and among their associates, thereby releasing the energies of supervision to make additional refinements in production and management problems. There is further responsibility upon employees and supervisors to make an intellectual contribution to the job. Ideas that will work are precious and all too few—real ones that work originate in the most unexpected sources. An organization that can recognize good ideas and use them is tapping a human resource that has value beyond measurement in terms of dollars and cents. Progress to date in the application of these principles of employer-employee relationships suggests that a constructive approach to a perplexing problem has added real substance to the program of the Authority. The elimination of many causes of misunderstanding, unrest, and other negative factors has laid a basis for responsible employee participation in the development of a positive morale and in achieving a more effective utilization of the human resources of the whole organization.

I want to emphasize that the basic purpose in the labor policy of the Authority is to free the way for constructive cooperation between organized employees and the management in order that the independent contribution of both may be brought to bear on the job at hand. The worker's con-

tribution to the job goes far beyond the day's work; it goes into the creation of an atmosphere of good morale, into workable ideas, and suggestions that make the taxpayer's dollar buy more for the benefit of the general public. In short, the whole approach of the Authority in the field of labor relations constitutes one of the most important programs of adult education to be found in the Valley—it is adult education not only for the worker but for the employer as well.

I wish I had time to tell you about other examples which illustrate the way in which the Authority is attempting to make the democratic method work in the broad field of human relations. The internal administration of the Authority is replete with such examples. I can best sum it up by saying that in the internal administration of the Authority, just as in the cooperative relationships established with local, county, state, and federal agencies, the goal is application of a theory of administration conceived as *education* itself.

If there is anything which marks the TVA program with a characteristic tone or temper, I suggest that it is this basic faith in the workability and soundness of democratic method in the educational process of harmonizing creative human relations. It is true as Professor John Gaus points out, "It is not a theory which promises a ready and rapid solution of the world's difficulties, because it requires for its application infinite patience and sympathy with all sorts and varieties of men." And I may add that it requires a sense of humility and tolerance on the part of all who would participate in its application.

I need not dwell further upon the implications this demonstration has for education or the educational system. All I can say is that if there are those who have lost faith in the workability of the democratic method in the educational process or in educational administration, the experiences of this public enterprise may suggest encouragement.

My discussion thus far may have created the impression that Utopia has arrived in the guise of the TVA. I do not mean to suggest that impression. I have attempted, how-

ever, to select those phases of the Authority's objectives and methods which are suggestive of implications for two problems of interest to educators—the validity of a human objective for education and the practicability of the democratic method in human relations. The TVA, like all other public enterprises, needs help in performing the tasks you as citizens have assigned. With that prefatory statement, I come to the third major implication found in the TVA program that should be of vital interest to education.

Specifically, any large federal program, and the Authority is certainly no exception, reveals a twofold implication relevant to the subject matter and content of the educational process, to put it more simply, an implication for the curriculum of the educational system.

The expansion and increased scope of governmental activity has brought us face to face more realistically with the problem of personnel. On the one hand, the objectives of a people sought through its public agencies can be achieved only in so far as the men and women in those public agencies are equipped for their heavy responsibilities. Obviously, a major factor in that equipment must be an intelligent interest in the problems and an understanding of the economic and social forces with which a nation must deal. Therefore, if we are to continue to load our government with heavier responsibilities, men and women must be adequately prepared to staff the public service.

On the other hand, we can educate and train men and women for the public service, but unless we as citizens become informed and sympathetic of the magnitude and significance of the tasks performed by our public service, the prestige of that service will continue to languish and will not attract the best equipped personnel.

It is ironical, as students of government have pointed out, that "Americans distrust government; yet steadily heap more tasks upon it." In this we see a vicious cycle at work. Distrust in government discourages fair appraisal of results; disparagement of results leads to diminishing prestige of

government employment; lack of prestige breeds lack of interest in government careers among the most capable, mediocre personnel, impedes successful administration, and begets poor results; poor results lead to deeper distrust—and so the cycle goes its negative and destructive course.

An intelligent analysis of the successes and failures of American government surely cannot justify the lack of esteem which is said to prevail. The record of efficiency in the postal service, the largest single employer in the world, the great advances in agriculture, in conservation of forest lands, improvement of public roads, the growth and development of the public school system, all achieved in large part under the leadership of government devised and supported by us as citizens and taxpayers, is nothing of which to be ashamed. A sober view of this attitude of distrust of American government would suggest that its basis lies in lack of understanding as to what is being done through the people's own agencies.

The American educational system must do its share in restoring to the public service that high public esteem which it so justly deserves. The task is twofold—the educational system through its curriculum and through intelligent guidance of young men and women can improve the quality of recruits for the public service; but even more important in my judgment, the educational system can relate its curriculum more closely to the human and physical problems which government is called upon to face and in this manner inspire a more intelligent respect for the public service itself. If the first task is done better than it is being done now we can hope to cope successfully with the increasingly complex problems of the nation. But unless the second task is also performed more effectively that hope will not be realized because our best trained men and women will look upon public service as a second-rate career. Upon the educational system rests a responsibility to reverse the forces which militate against the increased effectiveness of the public service.

Elton Mayo in his studies of the problems of urban and

industrial environment suggests an answer as he describes the problem of education in these words:

But what underlay all these things, as one sees it now, and what I believe is more important now for the youth of the country generally than the immediate difficulties due to the "depression," and accountable not only for the symptomatic behavior mentioned here, but for the deep cynicism that seems to pervade both the universities and the secondary schools, is that youth, full of energy and idealism, finds no purpose . . . to which he can tie, and lacks, therefore, motivating power.

Perhaps there is a constructive antidote for this attitude of apathy and despair. Perhaps our educational system by clarification of objectives and improvement of method and curricula can revitalize its contribution to progress. If our educational program can release in our youth a deeper interest in people, a sense of the problems of people and the forces which control them, we will have gone a long way toward the solution of these problems. To do this the institutions of our democracy must be made *meaningful* to a larger number. In the activities of the public service as it functions in the local, state, and national community there is an abundance of subject matter adaptable to the formal school curriculum, to adult education groups, to the discussions in public forums. What better problems and subject matter can be found for the growing student to grapple with as he tests and develops his ability to analyze and to think his way through to his own conclusions. His practice material would be real and significant. The efforts that have been made in this direction are producing significant results. Much more needs to be done.

Let us hope that we can speedily outdistance the point of view expressed recently by a president of a board of education of a large city: "Academic freedom is a splendid theory, if by it you mean the freedom to teach academic, or essentially school subjects." The inference that school subjects must avoid the subject matter of the human, social, and economic problems of our modern day cannot go unchal-

lenged if we are to make education and the public service an effective instrument in the hands of a democratic people.

The problems encountered *within* a large public agency engaged in a multiple purpose program of great human significance are by no means a simple problem of getting people to work together harmoniously; the problem confronted in coordinating a large staff of people of varied professional backgrounds, training, and experiences as Gaus points out, "has its roots in the whole educational system, from the nursery school to adult education, and its influence upon civic training."

The problems confronted in the nation at large are of similar character. The educational system has a heavy responsibility in preparing men and women who as public employees and as citizens can proceed more realistically and more cooperatively in finding a workable solution.

In summary, I would suggest that you view the program of the Authority as a demonstration of broad educational objective, of the workability of the democratic method in a most complex setting, and as a reference source of subject matter describing the efforts of government to meet national problems. In viewing it and other federal programs as a source of educational subject matter it may suggest a way for education to increase the effectiveness of its function as an arm of the public service and as an agent of the people.

Cultivating "Will-ful" Giving

By ARCHIE M. PALMER

THE maintenance of formal bequest programs is a comparatively recent development in the field of college and university finance. Although from early colonial days the cause of higher education in this country has been materially aided and encouraged by the generous action of interested individuals who have made provision in their wills for the support of our colleges and universities, it was not until 1924 that the systematic solicitation of bequests was fully recognized as an effective instrument of fund raising and the first formal bequest program inaugurated.

I

Harvard, our oldest American college, which this year celebrated the tercentenary of its founding, owes its inception, at least in part, to a gift by bequest. When John Harvard bequeathed to the contemplated "schoale or colledge" his library and half his estate—a princely gift at the time—he indicated the potentialities of this form of giving. Many another college owes its origin, as do Williams and Johns Hopkins, to money bequeathed by will. Without the generosity of far-sighted men and women, expressed in this way, the early development and continued maintenance and growth of many of our institutions of higher learning would not have been possible.

Many a college president has sought and secured support for his institution through legacies. In 1903 President Harris of Bucknell suggested to his board of trustees that the funds necessary for a proposed development program be sought in part through legacies, and during the remaining sixteen years of his presidency he encouraged the giving of money by will, recommended bequests in his public addresses, suggested them in circular letters to the alumni, and discussed such gifts in personal interviews with men and women of means. Practically

every college campus bears eloquent testimony to the fact that many gifts have been made in this way. These bequests have resulted largely from the personal efforts of the college president, the appeals included in annual reports, and the inspiring influence of precedent and example.

The first formal bequest program was established in 1924 at Cornell. In that year the Cornellian Council, the official fund raising agency of the University, appointed a committee on bequests, headed by a prominent New York attorney and well-known alumnus. The idea originated with the vice chairman of the University's board of trustees, who had shortly before successfully headed a campaign to raise a ten million dollar semi-centennial endowment fund and who had previously served as president of the Council. Believing that in the years to come Cornell might well expect to receive more money by bequest than from all other sources combined, he recommended that a definite program be developed which would encourage alumni and other friends of the University to remember Cornell in their wills.

During the past twelve years more than \$6,000,000 have been bequeathed to Cornell. The Cornellian Council's committee on bequests has also been advised of wills written by persons still living which contain gifts to the University of at least \$6,000,000 more. Many have made provision to leave something to Cornell, in the form of direct gifts of cash, securities, real estate or other property, contingent bequests, living trusts, and annuities to care for loved ones during life, with the University as ultimate beneficiary. And inquiries are constantly being received from lawyers and others as to how such testamentary gifts should be worded. Through the promotion of the bequest program there has been created among Cornell alumni and other friends of the University, a very definite bequest-consciousness and also, it is believed, a greater Cornell-consciousness.

II

A bequest program may be defined as an organized effort designed to stimulate the alumni and other friends of a college

or university to make provision in the disposition of their estates for the support of the institution and the promotion of its service to society, by remembering the institution in their wills, by taking out insurance in its favor, by entering into annuity agreements, or by establishing living trusts which would benefit the institution upon or following the donor's death.

A survey of the present status of fund raising activities in American colleges and universities reveals that there are at the present time at least 30 institutions that have formal bequest programs in operation, and many more that have similar undertakings in contemplation. With the exception of the one at Cornell, all the existing plans have had their inception during the past five or six years, and most of them have followed, in greater or less degree, the Cornell bequest program. At many other institutions attempts to cultivate "will-ful" giving are also being made by administrative officers, trustees, and other official representatives.

There is no one best way of initiating and organizing a bequest program. As is true in all other forms of fund raising, a great deal depends upon the local situation and the personalities concerned, both in launching the scheme and in determining whether it shall function under the trustees, the administration of the college, the general alumni association, or some other appropriate group.

The initial impulse might, and very frequently does, come from the president of the institution; it might also come from the trustees or from some individual trustee, administrative officer, or interested alumnus. The plan might be the result of alumni action, either through an existing alumni organization or some interested group. It might be a natural outgrowth of a progressive alumni fund program, or it might be just a normal development from experience with testamentary gift problems. However, whatever its origin and under whatever auspices initiated, the bequest work, once launched, should receive full recognition as an integral part of the official fund raising program of the institution.

There is no reason why a bequest program, properly con-

ceived and efficiently managed, should conflict in any way with an existing alumni fund or with any other money raising efforts by alumni groups and administrative officers of the institution. Experience clearly indicates that the adequate maintenance and development of a college or university requires a continuous fund raising program embracing the endeavors of all the various groups and agencies in a well coordinated whole. The bequest work should be part and parcel of the whole financial program and in many respects supplementary to the efforts to secure annual or current support gifts. A bequest program is not concerned with contributions to be paid during the lifetime of a donor, but rather with the perpetuation of regular support and annual giving.

A desirable organization for the efficient execution of a formal bequest program comprises in its membership a leader or chairman, a small executive committee, and a large group of workers—lawyers, bankers and trust officers, insurance men, ministers, doctors, and others having possible professional relations with the problem. All the foregoing should be volunteer workers, but in addition there should be an executive secretary or other professional director whose main function is to coordinate the various phases of the bequest work, to supervise the efforts of the volunteer workers, and to see that the bequest activities conform to the general fund raising program of the institution.

A bequest program requires vigorous and influential leadership. It should be headed by a person of prominence, wide acquaintance, and high standing, who by his association with the work confers on it some of his own prestige and high character, thereby endowing it with valuable good-will and confidence. The same applies to the personnel of the executive or other central directing committee and, in fact, to all the workers participating in the program. The success of the work is predicated on the inspiration and guidance of interested individuals, not only familiar with and in favor of the project itself but also acquainted with the legal and social implications.

III

The inception of the Cornell bequest program has already been mentioned; it is now one of the major activities of the Cornellian Council, coordinate in importance with the maintenance of the Cornell Alumni Fund. The Cornell committee on bequests is composed of nearly a thousand Cornell lawyers, graduates of the University's law school and other Cornellians who have entered the law after professional study elsewhere, located in all parts of the United States and in several foreign countries. The thought underlying the organization and activities of this committee is that clients frequently seek from practicing attorneys advice as to worthy beneficiaries of all forms of philanthropic gifts and bequests. If each Cornell lawyer's mind is sufficiently attuned to the needs of the University, he need not hesitate for an appropriate answer to such an inquiry. And, even if he never draws a will for a client, he at least has his own will to draw or to have drawn. The same is true of trust officers, insurance men, ministers, physicians, and others who are frequently consulted on such matters and who also have their own wills to make. The policies of the bequest committee are determined by the chairman and a small executive committee composed of lawyers. The executive secretary of the Cornellian Council serves on the executive committee and is always ready to conduct correspondence with persons interested in any phase of the bequest program or of giving to Cornell.

At Ohio Wesleyan University, where a committee of the board of trustees is responsible for all financial promotion work, the bequest program was initiated through the office of the executive secretary of the University, the chairman of the trustees' committee on promotion acting as organizing chairman. Since 1930 the work has been conducted under an estates and wills committee composed of more than one hundred lawyers and bankers, located in all the principal communities in Ohio and in many of the larger cities outside that state. They are prepared to assist those who wish to make bequests to Ohio Wesleyan, to make sure that the purpose of such be-

quests will be of the greatest value to the University and to see that wills are so drawn that the bequests are valid. The work of the committee is supplemented by the services of a field man who devotes most of his time to its promotion.

The University of Pennsylvania has a progress committee which follows up on estates in which the University may share and approaches individuals whose relatives have left bequests to the University or have mentioned the University in their wills. This committee approaches older alumni who have been giving to the University and asks them to endow their annual contributions by means of bequests. Other alumni are also asked to continue their benefactions to the University after their deaths by writing bequests into their wills. During the past four years a committee on bequests has been organized with an executive committee of five members whose function is to select the members of a general committee on university bequests and also to act as a steering committee for the entire bequest program, initiating activities and following them up to see that they are carried through to a successful conclusion. One of the five members is chairman, another is a vice chairman representing the lawyers, and a third is a vice chairman representing the trust officers. The office of the University of Pennsylvania Fund serves as the executive office of the committee. The committee on university bequests is essentially a working committee, composed of about 25 enthusiastic alumni divided into several groups on the basis of professional interests. The function of one of these groups is to interview personally the leading law firms and the trust officers in the Philadelphia area. Similarly a small medical committee is responsible for bringing general practitioners and specialists into this phase of the program. A subcommittee on insurance representatives has also been organized. Through the executive committee arrangements are made for the trustees of the University and the officers and other key men in various alumni groups to take part by writing the University into their wills.

In 1932, as part of "a plan to increase the financial stability of New York University," a bequest foundation committee was

organized at that institution. The main committee consists of a chairman and 16 members representing the faculty, the administration, the alumni federation, and the various schools and colleges of the University. The school and college representatives are in turn chairmen of subcommittees of the alumni of their respective schools, and the plan contemplates that they will select a bequest executive from each of the classes, assigning a subcommittee member to work with, say, four or five of these bequest executives. An administrative officer of the University serves as secretary of the bequest foundation committee and persons desiring assistance in drafting or changing wills to include mention of New York University are advised to communicate with him. A special committee on ways and means, consisting of alumni of the law school, renders professional assistance and considers aspects of the bequests program involving legal ethics.

Until three or four years ago Northwestern University carried on no systematic plan to encourage bequests, but utilized various means to accomplish this purpose, such as personal contacts with wealthy individuals and general publicity in the public press, in its alumni magazine, and in the university publications. A definite bequest program has now been developed, very similar to that at Cornell, and the results already attained illustrate the possibilities of a well-conceived, aggressive program. At Northwestern the trustees are concerned not only with governing the University, conserving its assets, and acting as watch dogs of its investments, but are also actively engaged in seeking funds for the institution. The nucleus of this latter activity is a committee on development composed of 19 trustees which has a special subcommittee on bequests, whose responsibility is to encourage prospective donors to name Northwestern in their wills. The committee on development is constantly examining other methods of philanthropy such as the annuity contract, life insurance, estate pledges, transfer of property, and trust funds, and keeps in touch with attorneys, trust officers, bankers, and others who are likely to counsel in the final disposition of estates.

At Syracuse University a committee on bequests was organized several years ago at the request of the chancellor of the University, and as rapidly as possible all Syracuse men who are members of the bar are being enrolled in the committee. The general plan, which is much like the one at Cornell, contemplates the inclusion of doctors and ministers. In taking this step to encourage bequests, Syracuse is not attempting anything new but is merely endeavoring to organize work already begun. Bequests to the University had been suggested many times in the past by Syracuse attorneys, and legacies are responsible for a large portion of the University's present endowment.

As part of its continuous program of raising funds Western Reserve University has organized a bequest program following more or less the lines of the one at Cornell. The organization consists of a chairman, an executive committee composed of eleven graduates of the law school, which develops plans and determines policies, an advisory committee consisting of the dean and at least one alumnus from each of the thirteen colleges of the University, which ascertains needs of the individual colleges and advises as to the ways and means of carrying on publicity concerning these needs, and a general committee of nearly 2,000 alumni, graduates of the law school as well as alumni of the undergraduate college who have entered the practice of law through study at other schools. To the general committee will be added alumni who are officials in the trust departments of banks, physicians, and members of other professions and businesses, and some non-alumni attorneys practicing in greater Cleveland.

While most of the more elaborately organized bequest programs are to be found at the larger universities, several small liberal arts colleges have made considerable progress in this field. Their problem is naturally complicated by the fact that they do not have large groups of alumni graduated from their own law schools and other professional departments. Usually these smaller institutions have developed their bequest programs in connection with some special fund raising campaign.

About five years ago as part of the centenary celebration at Haverford College a committee of lawyers and trust officers in Philadelphia was appointed which circularized other Haverford lawyers and trust officers elsewhere in the country and sent letters to all other Haverford alumni urging them to make provision for the college in their wills, regardless of how small the amount might be. Last year at Bucknell University a bequest division of the University's centennial commission was formed and a committee of more than two hundred Bucknell lawyers, bank representatives, and insurance men selected. Acting on the suggestion of an alumni committee, Allegheny College has launched a bequest program this year, and the board of trustees has made it a major financial project and joined with the alumni association in sponsoring it, appointing five members of the board to act with a similar number designated by the alumni association in bringing the program and its possibilities to the attention of the alumni and other friends of the College. Although it has done little in an organized way, Rollins College has maintained a program of personal solicitation on the part of certain of the college officers and several years ago joined with the other five Florida colleges in publishing a booklet, entitled "Endowing Florida's Future," in which were listed the needs of the six institutions and the ways in which they might be met through bequests. At Lafayette College an alumni committee, which had investigated the practices of other institutions, has recommended a definite bequest program; in the meantime the president of the college has been actively publicizing the importance of bequests as future sources of financial support for his own and other privately endowed institutions.

The most extensive bequest activities among the women's colleges are to be found at Barnard, Bryn Mawr, Mount Holyoke, Radcliffe, Smith, Vassar, and Wellesley Colleges, which are cooperating with the Alumnae Committee of Seven Colleges. This committee has made remarkable progress, since its organization in 1932, in establishing firm and friendly re-

lations with lawyers and trust company officials in many places, as well as in generally educating the public as to the achievements, needs, and inadequate endowment of women's colleges. Mount Holyoke and Smith have been doing some additional cultivation of bequests independently. Mount Holyoke has been holding separate meetings in various large cities at which the particular needs of the College have been explained to the lawyers, trust officers, and insurance men cultivated by the general committee, and has also been making efforts to get its own alumnae to remember the College in their wills. The alumnae fund committee at Smith, soon after its revival in 1927, set about the task of persuading those most closely concerned with the finances of the college to write Smith into their wills. Starting thus from the inside and working out, they planned to base a wider appeal to all alumnae on the admirable example of the few. The depression slowed up the program to some extent, but in 1932 a selected number of lawyer and trust officer husbands of Smith alumnae, as well as alumnae themselves engaged in the practice of law and banking, were invited definitely to aid in the "quest for bequests."

The trustees of Rutgers University, realizing the importance of a bequest program, recently contributed a sum to finance the office of an assistant to the president who is now in the process of organizing such a program. A start has been made with a booklet, entitled "Building Rutgers with a Will," which was distributed to graduates of the University practicing law. The trustees of Columbia University are also rapidly approaching an energetic bequest program, planning to start with a committee of lawyers, working in cooperation with the treasurer of the University, to enlarge the number of bequests carried by alumni in their wills. While the University of Chicago has not really had a definite bequest program, they have distributed two booklets on the subject to lawyers and trust officers and have mentioned the matter frequently in their alumni bulletin. Catholic University has also published a booklet featuring bequests, which was used in connection with a capital funds campaign launched several years ago.

Although their problem is slightly different from that of the privately endowed institutions, several of the state universities have recently become active in the solicitation of testamentary gifts. As part of its private financing program the University of North Carolina has established under its alumni loyalty fund a special bequest committee, composed of about four hundred lawyers and trust officers, to assist in promoting the plan. Their program is frankly modeled a great deal after the one at Cornell, but the bulk of the work is carried on by means of individual contacts and personal visits. The committee is kept interested by means of frequent communications describing bequests which North Carolina alumni have written into their wills and those which various institutions have received from their alumni and other friends. The University of California does not have a formal bequest organization, but the attorney to the regents of the University maintains contact with the leading attorneys of the state in the furtherance of its bequest program; he advises them as to the proper forms to be used and frequently publishes articles in the alumni magazine on bequests and other gifts to the University. Similarly, at the University of Missouri the bequest program is carried on in an informal way by means of publicity in the alumni magazine and through circulars to the alumni. Several years ago in an effort to obtain adequate gifts to take care of both construction and maintenance, the University of Oregon published an attractive brochure, entitled "Investments in the Future of Oregon," in which considerable space was given to the discussion of bequests and the proper form in which to make them.

IV

A bequest program naturally cannot become immediately effective, but requires slow growth over a long period of time. It should be developed according to a well-conceived and well-formulated program divided into successive steps which should be initiated in the proper order as the opportune time arises. Such a procedure is preferable to attempting to launch all at once a comprehensive plan in which the activities are too

quickly spread over too large a field, with the inevitable danger of dissipating valuable effort.

The ultimate results of the program will largely depend upon the persistence with which the successive steps are carried out. Therefore, whatever is undertaken should be executed thoroughly and with enthusiasm, with the exercise of the utmost tact at all times, both in presenting the program and in working out individual bequests. In dealing with prospective donors, bequests should be advocated not as substitutes for outright gifts made during one's lifetime, but rather as convenient ways in which to supplement and perpetuate present giving. Only through such a procedure in presenting the story and in stimulating bequests can the program become really effective.

All promotional work should be so conducted that it will stimulate interest in the making of bequests and encourage prospective testators to seek advice and assistance in drawing wills including such bequests. At the same time special effort should be made to discover and to cultivate persons who, by reason of their present giving and other manifestations of interest in the institution, seem to be likely prospects. Their backgrounds, interests, and relations to the institution should be carefully studied and all possible data assembled and made a matter of record, so that when specific occasions arise such material can be used, either with the individuals themselves or with their professional advisers.

As the giving of money, especially by will, is an intimate personal matter, all correspondence and other relations with a potential donor or his representative should be conducted tactfully and in strict confidence. Information concerning the making of bequests very infrequently becomes a matter of public knowledge, but when it does, every effort should be made to sustain the interests of the testator. Whenever there is an intimation on the part of a prospective donor that he is considering making a bequest, the important thing is to arrange as quickly as possible for the drawing of a will or the making of an appropriate codicil. It is a universal weakness of human nature to procrastinate in the drawing of one's will;

all the good intentions in the world are of no avail unless expressed in the required testamentary form.

After the bequest has been received, full acknowledgment should be made, through the usual publicity channels and by *direct recognition to the heirs*. Such action serves not only as an expression of appreciation for the gift itself but also as a suggestion to the heirs and to others as to how such gifts can be made and of what importance they are in the life of the institution. Another little thing which is all too frequently neglected, and which has very definite possibilities, is the practice of reporting periodically to the heirs on the uses to which the money received from the legacy is put.

In stimulating gifts by bequest small as well as large bequests should be encouraged. Many small gifts not only amount in the aggregate to a substantial sum, but also broaden the base on which our colleges and universities are built. If every alumnus could be induced to remember his alma mater in his will to the extent of at least \$100, or even make the institution residuary legatee or remainderman after all other responsibilities and obligations had been discharged, the financial problems of the institutions would rapidly disappear.

In maintaining interest in their bequest programs most institutions keep in constant touch with committee members and other professional men on their lists, through correspondence, periodic reports on developments in the work, and announcements of significant bequests received. Personal contact is also used to stimulate active participation and cooperation, and in dealing both with members of bequest committees and with prospective donors. Attention has usually been called to the readiness of officers of the institutions to furnish information not given in printed literature and counsel as to relative needs and the advisability of contemplated specific gifts and bequests. When clients are wondering what to do with residuary estates the attorneys are then in a position to suggest the consideration of that particular institution as worthy to be named as residuary legatee. Members of a bequest committee and lawyers generally cannot actively solicit be-

quests for an institution, but they can handle cases referred to them, directly or through arrangement with the institution. In all instances prospective donors should be advised to employ legal assistance in the preparation of wills and in the addition of codicils; in the earlier stages of their bequest committee work, several institutions offered free legal service, but experience proved the inexpediency of such a procedure and it has been discontinued.

A well-balanced program of publicity should be pursued, rather than a haphazard or ill-conceived plan such as some institutions have employed. Results cannot be expected from the mailing out of a single bequest leaflet which has no connection with the general fund raising program of the institution. Intelligent newspaper publicity, featuring the academic and scientific activities of the institution and the outstanding achievements of its various departments and of individual faculty members, can provide invaluable support to the bequest program. Publicity media that can be used effectively in this connection include not only the public press and popular magazines, but also alumni and student publications, educational, legal, medical, and other professional journals, and direct mail promotional literature.

As an integral part of their bequest programs a number of institutions have prepared, especially for distribution to attorneys and trust officers as well as prospective donors, attractive brochures and other printed or multigraphed material designed to stimulate bequests and gifts. In addition to brief statements concerning the institutions and their contributions to society, these booklets have usually contained lists of specific needs, the various methods of giving, the proper legal forms for bequests and other gifts, and tax data bearing on bequests and gifts to educational institutions, particularly the tax exemption features of such gifts.

The significance of making bequests to educational institutions and the proper procedure to be followed can be, and have been, effectively presented to alumni and other prospective donors at reunions, before meetings of national and divi-

sional alumni associations, local alumni clubs, and class gatherings, through professional fraternities, especially those of the legal and medical groups, and at alumni meetings held in connection with national and state conventions of professional associations. Literature concerning a bequest program can be mailed to all professional alumni to advantage, especially lawyers, trust officers, insurance representatives, medical men, ministers, and others who are likely to be called upon to advise in the disposition of wealth. It is also extremely desirable that announcement be made as to where detailed information and advice concerning the institution and ways of contributing to its support may be obtained, particularly where and how specific bequest problems may be discussed. It is important that this information be brought, directly and yet tactfully, to the attention of prospective testators and their advisers.

In this connection Cornell uses to good advantage the columns of the *Cornellian Council Bulletin*, a four- to eight-page promotional medium which is sent gratis five or six times a year to more than 50,000 alumni and other friends of the University. It is the present editorial policy of that publication that every issue shall contain some reference to bequests, either the announcement of recently received bequests, so presented that they will be suggestive of ways in which money may be given to the University, or some news or editorial statement concerning the activities of the bequest program. In one issue a descriptive list of the University's productive endowment funds, with the amounts and names of the donors, was printed; this record of the sources of endowment income illustrated graphically the many ways in which investment had been made in the future of Cornell. Through its *University Facts*, a similar fund raising promotional medium, the University of North Carolina publicizes gifts not only to the University but also to other institutions.

It has been felt in the past that the making of wills and bequests was a very delicate subject, one which should not be discussed in university and alumni publications. At the present time, however, many college catalogues, presidents' reports,

and other official publications carry suggested bequest forms and information concerning such gifts. It is the experience at Cornell that the alumni do not resent the suggestion that the University will welcome bequests, and it is believed that the success of the Cornell bequest program has been due largely to the frequent articles and other references on the subject in the *Cornellian Council Bulletin* and other publications.

Recognizing how federal and state income, gift, and inheritance taxes favor gifts and bequests to colleges and universities, several institutions have published articles and other pertinent data on the subject for use in the promotion of their bequest activities. Through the courtesy of a lawyer member of its bequest committee, who had made an extensive study of the legal aspects of taxation, Cornell published in interview form in its *Cornellian Council Bulletin* last December, some of the more important implications of the bearing that such gifts have on an individual's income tax liability and that of his estate. Several institutions have reproduced this material and others have prepared similar information for general use with prospective donors. Cornell proposes to publish each year in the *Cornellian Council Bulletin* further technical information, as part of its general publicity and promotional program. Duke University recently carried in its alumni magazine, as have other institutions, a discussion of the taxation of gifts under the Federal Revenue Act of 1935.

A number of institutions employ suggestive slogans in their bequest literature. Cornell includes the slogan "Cornell: Greater Still—By Your Will," in all its bequest publicity, and prints it in practically every issue of the *Cornellian Council Bulletin* as a runner across the bottom of the last page. Syracuse has as its slogan, "Syracuse University—Better By Bequest." Ohio Wesleyan uses two, "Your Will Is a Way" and "A Will To Build." Bucknell has adopted "By Your Will, Bucknell Finer Still"; and Rutgers, "Building Rutgers With A Will." Although objectionable to an occasional alumnus, such slogans seem to possess definite merit when used year after year in publicity and promotional work.

Naturally, the adequate maintenance of an effective bequest program requires a considerable expenditure of both time and money. Such expenditure can be, and usually is, absorbed by the various administrative units concerned, but whatever the expense may be, it should be looked upon as an investment in long-term institutional financing. It may be years before the effects of cultivation efforts are realized, and even then the results are not always readily discernible. Once a bequest program is launched it should be recognized as a regular function of the institution and conducted as such.

V

It is becoming increasingly evident that in the future, to an even greater extent than in the past, our colleges and universities will have to depend in large measure upon bequests as a source of financial support. Formerly a few very wealthy philanthropists provided the major financial support of our institutions of higher learning. But as a result of changing economic conditions many of the sources of large contributions have dried up, and it will be many years, if ever, before the golden stream begins to flow again. Therefore, our colleges and universities must look to their alumni and other friends for the financial assistance to care for capital needs as well as current operations.

Last year the John Price Jones Corporation published a summary of gifts and capital amounts derived from bequests received during the four-year period 1930-34 by 28 colleges and universities—including men's, women's, and coeducational institutions—in which were listed, out of a total of \$162,805,258 received by these institutions during the four-year period, \$60,446,781 in bequests. A list of large individual donations, of \$50,000 or more, published in the 1936 *World Almanac*, records a total of more than \$32,500,000 received from bequests during 1935, of which nearly \$13,000,000 was given to colleges and universities. The importance of this form of giving cannot be overemphasized. It is significant, for instance, that without any organized effort Harvard has

added to its endowment funds more than \$26,000,000 received from bequests and that Yale lists almost \$45,000,000 in testamentary gifts among its trust funds. While there are no accurate statistics readily available of the total amount received through bequests by all our institutions of higher learning, the data given above are indicative of the possibilities of this form of giving.

Some will say that the cultivation of bequests is a gloomy way of providing money for an institution. This is not true. Any man has a happier outlook on life when, through insurance, a trust, or bequest, he has provided for the future welfare of his family. The same is true in the college relationship. Before long the bequest idea will take hold, and when it does, the financial problems of the American college will be well on the way to solution. Unquestionably the cultivation of "will-ful" giving through formal bequest programs will contribute greatly to the realization of that end.

The Tenure of State University Trustees

By M. M. CHAMBERS

FROM time to time certain widely heralded occurrences in the field of state-controlled higher education cause reverberations which create interest in the relationships between state university governing boards and their respective state governments. The president of our oldest and most renowned privately controlled university has recently intimated that the governmental structure for the control of state universities may not always be entirely satisfactory in its present forms. There is no reason to believe that human ingenuity in the social science field has been exhausted; and it is not only possible but probable that devices better than any now in use may be invented or adapted to the service of public control of higher education. A review of certain factors affecting the length of service of state university trustees, and the methods by which their tenure may be terminated, is not untimely.

LENGTH OF TERM

The terms of office of state university trustees range from three to sixteen years, with a median of six years. Three-year terms are provided for all members of the boards of trustees of Indiana University and Purdue University, and for the one trustee of the University of Maine who must be appointed by the governor upon nomination by the alumni association. Four years is the term of state university board members in Florida, Kansas, Louisiana, Montana, New Hampshire, New Mexico, Utah, and Virginia. Five years is the term in Idaho, and six years—the median length—occurs in sixteen states. Seven years is the term in Maine, Ohio, and Oklahoma; eight years in Arizona, Michigan, and North Carolina; nine years in Maryland and Oregon; and ten years in Nevada. Twelve years is the term in Alabama and Mississippi, and for the Board of Regents of the University of the

State of New York. In Tennessee the term is fourteen years, and in California sixteen years.

Almost universally the terms overlap in such a way that a complete change in the personnel of the board cannot ordinarily take place suddenly. For example, one of the nine members of the Oregon State Board of Higher Education is appointed each year for a term of nine years; and one regent in New York is elected annually for a term of twelve years. In other instances, as in California and Tennessee, two members are appointed every two years.

Long and overlapping terms are thoroughly desirable, for this device is often an effective shield against the inroads of self-seeking politicians who attain temporary seats of power in other branches of the state government and attempt to seize control of the educational system for partisan or personal advantage. Long and overlapping terms also are highly appropriate for the members of a deliberative body charged with the function of long-range policy making which has already been demonstrated to be particularly important in the field of lay control of education.

One objection sometimes advanced against long terms is that they tend to permit members of the board to grow old in the service, and eventually pack the board with superannuated members. That this contention is of little weight seems to be proved by the fact that there is little relation between the length of term and the actual length of tenure of members on the board. For example, at the University of Chicago, where terms are for three years, the actual average tenure has been eleven and one-half years; while at Tulane University, where the term is for life, the average tenure has been twelve years. Studies of several institutions have indicated that the actual average tenure of trustees is invariably not far from twelve years, regardless of the length of term.

It is possible to guard against unduly extended tenure by providing that members shall not be eligible to succeed themselves. This restriction is not often applied to state university trustees, but Mississippi provides that members of the Board

of Trustees of State Institutions of Higher Learning shall not be eligible to reappointment after having served one term of twelve years.

FILLING OF VACANCIES

Apart from vacancies occasioned by the expiration of terms, separations from the service may occur as the result of the death, resignation, or removal of members. Since the terms are generally long, and since several members are in service concurrently, vacancies from these causes happen with sufficient frequency to make the method of filling vacancies a matter of importance. Commonly the statutes prescribe the mode to be used. Often the governor is empowered to appoint a new member to serve out any existing unexpired term, or at least to serve until the next session of the legislature, when the appointment may be confirmed or rejected by the senate.

However, there are many interesting variations of this common practice. In Oregon, the law creating the State Board of Higher Education in 1929 provided that the senate should elect a committee on executive appointments, consisting of six members, and that any appointment to the board made in the interim between legislative sessions must be approved by vote of four members of this committee, and further remain subject to confirmation by vote of two-thirds of the senate when that body is next thereafter convened. Mississippi specifies that whenever the governor makes an appointment to fill a vacancy for the duration of an unexpired term on the Board of Trustees of State Institutions of Higher Learning, he shall appoint one person from a list of two recommended for the vacancy by the State Board of Education.

On account of inadvertence in the drafting of the statutes, the question of whether the governor can make a valid appointment for the ensuing full term when a term expires between legislative sessions, disregarding the requirement that regular appointments must be confirmed by the senate, has twice arisen. Under these circumstances the supreme court of Alabama held that the governor could make no appoint-

ment without the consent of the senate, even if this meant that one or more vacancies on the board must exist until the next session of the senate. This decision was based on the doctrine, generally adhered to by American courts, that the chief executive of a state has no inherent powers, but only such authority as is conferred upon him expressly or by implication in the constitution or statutes. In fact, the governor's inability to make appointments without the concurrence of the senate did not result in any protracted vacancies on the board of trustees of the University of Alabama, because the constitution contained a "hold-over clause," directing that "said trustees . . . shall hold office for a term of six years, and until their successors shall be appointed and qualified."

Under similar circumstances the supreme court of South Dakota reached the opposite conclusion. Its decision was based partly upon the theory that it is contrary to public policy to allow an office to stand vacant for more than a minimum of time, and partly upon a constitutional provision to the effect that whenever any public office shall become vacant from any cause, and no mode of filling it is prescribed in the constitution or statutes, the governor shall have power to fill the vacancy. It should be added that there was no "hold-over clause" in South Dakota. Both the Alabama and South Dakota cases occurred more than thirty years ago, and are now of little more than academic interest, because the statutes under which they arose have been amended in both states; but they serve to illustrate difficulties which may easily arise from lack of forethought in the drafting of statutes regulating the mode of appointment, terms, and tenure of governing board members.

REMOVAL OF MEMBERS

When a governing board is not created or perpetuated in the state constitution, but is merely a creature of the legislature, its members may be removed *en masse* by a subsequent legislative act, and others appointed in their stead; or the legislature may abolish the board and create an entirely new and

different agency to govern the educational institution or system. The constitutionality of these procedures was twice upheld by the supreme court of Florida, when the legislature made sweeping changes in the control of state institutions of higher education in 1878 and in 1905. More recent examples of similar action have occurred in Mississippi (1910 and 1932), Kansas (1913 and 1925), West Virginia (1909, 1919, and 1927), North Dakota (1915 and 1919), Oregon (1929), North Carolina (1931), and Georgia (1931).

The removal of individual members for absence, neglect, incapacity, misfeasance or malfeasance in office, or other cause, is everywhere a matter of importance for at least two reasons: (1) in order to insure that the personnel of the board shall be effective and that no member shall serve after he has become obviously unfit, the power of removal must exist; and (2) if the power of removal is given to the governor without restraining safeguards, he may use it as a means of dominating the board, and thus nullify the protection ordinarily afforded by long and overlapping terms.

REMOVAL BY THE BOARD ITSELF

The boards of trustees of privately controlled institutions frequently possess the power to remove their own members, either for specified causes or whenever they think the best interests of the institution require it; but this power rarely resides in state university governing boards. The most outstanding example of it is at the University of Arkansas, where the board of trustees is authorized to remove a member, for any cause deemed by it sufficient, by simple majority vote, provided that not less than five trustees shall vote for the removal. This latter proviso simply means that a majority of the whole membership is required, for the board is composed of nine members.

Tennessee provides that the state university board of trustees, when any member fails to attend three regular meetings in succession, may remove him and call on the governor to appoint his successor; and that any member who has been found

to be interested financially in any contract affecting the university or to have procured the appointment of any relative to a position in its employ shall be subject to removal either by the governor or by the board of trustees. Virginia specifies that when a member of the state university board fails to perform his duties for one year without showing sufficient cause to the board, the board shall record the fact and certify it to the governor, whereupon the office shall be vacant. Delaware stipulates that absence from three successive meetings of the state university trustees shall authorize the offending trustee's place to be vacated, unless the board itself shall otherwise specially direct.

Vesting the power of removal in the board itself has certain distinctive merits. It preserves the dignity and independence of the board, and protects it from the danger of domination by some external non-educational authority through misuse of the power to remove members. Also, the members of the board are in a better position than any other authority to determine when one of their own members is incapacitated, grossly neglectful, or otherwise unfit. But, of course, if a majority of the members should enter into a corrupt conspiracy, or determine to condone the nonfeasance or malfeasance of a single member, the honest minority would be helpless to correct the situation if the removal power were vested solely in a majority of the board.

REMOVAL BY THE GOVERNOR

Commonly the power to remove governing board members for cause is entrusted to the governor, but hedged about with safeguards designed to prevent him from abusing it. These devices, as will appear presently, do not invariably achieve the desired result. Oregon provides that the governor may remove any member of the State Board of Higher Education at any time for cause, after notice and public hearings; but not more than three members shall be removed within any period of four years, except for corrupt conduct in office. Iowa directs that the governor may remove any member of the State Board

of Education, with the approval of a majority of the senate, for malfeasance in office or for any cause which would render him ineligible for appointment or incapable or unfit to discharge his official duties.

Idaho specifies gross immorality, malfeasance in office, and incompetence as causes for which the governor may remove a member of the State Board of Education and Board of Regents of the University of Idaho; and adds the proviso that no removal for personal or political reasons shall be valid without the concurrence of two-thirds of the senate. This apparently sanctions removals for ulterior motives if the governor can induce two-thirds of the senators to go into collusion with him. Probably this was not precisely the legislative intent, which would rather seem to have been to interdict removals by the governor alone except in cases involving one of the three causes specified in the statute.

Florida and North Dakota authorize the governor to remove any appointive member of their respective boards for cause. No list of causes is specified, nor do the statutes direct in what manner the governor shall proceed to reach his conclusions; but the procedure in such cases is well established by the common law, as will appear below.

NECESSITY OF NOTICE AND HEARING

Unless the statutes expressly provide that the removal may be summary, the courts uniformly hold that *ex parte* removals are invalid. In other words, it is necessary for the removing authority to notify the member whom he intends to remove, allow him a reasonable time in which to prepare a defense, and grant him a hearing on the charges specified in the original notice. The hearing need not be conducted with all the formality of a trial in a court of law, but the accused must be given reasonable opportunity to explain and defend his conduct. At this hearing the removing authority acts in the capacity of a quasi-judicial tribunal, and its findings on matters of fact are final, but wherever the decision involves an interpre-

tation of law, as distinguished from a mere finding of a fact, it may be appealed to the courts.

Thus if the decision is made arbitrarily or unreasonably, or is based on trivial or inconsequential causes, it will be reversed by the courts upon a proper showing thereof. Wherever the removal must be for cause, the common law is a mantle of protection for the member who may be unjustly accused. The greatest danger of misuse of the removal power is in situations where the statutes permit its summary exercise, as in the instance next to be described.

MISUSE OF THE REMOVAL POWER

One of the most flagrant recent cases of domination of a state university governing board by a headstrong governor involved the University of Washington in 1926. Determined to effect the dismissal of the president of the university despite his eleven years of conspicuously distinguished service, the governor found that this result could not be achieved without the removal of two of the seven members of the board of regents.

An existing statute provided that "whenever the governor is satisfied that any officer not liable to impeachment has been guilty of misconduct or malfeasance in office or is incompetent, he may remove such officer by filing with the secretary of state an appropriate order accompanied by a statement showing his reasons." Purporting to act under authority of this statute, the governor filed orders removing the two regents, with no more than a mere declaration that they were in his judgment guilty of misconduct in office, and with no recital of any facts on which his conclusion might be based. The ousted regents sought relief in the courts, contending that the governor's action did not constitute full compliance with the statute; but the supreme court, by a vote of five to eight, held that the governor's orders of removal were lawful and must stand as final.

The opinion of the three dissenting justices, which seems incontestably sound, was based chiefly upon two considera-

tions: (1) A proper interpretation of the words of the statute requires that the governor should state in his order the facts upon which he bases his decision. This would protect the holders of public office from arbitrary removal without stated cause, and would thus powerfully operate to raise the morale of the state's administrative organization. It would also protect the governor to some extent from the charge that his removals had not been made in good faith. (2) Although the determination of the existence of a fact by the executive is not subject to review by the courts, the executive's determination of a legal conclusion derived from such fact is subject to judicial review, because the executive in formulating such a conclusion is acting quasi-judicially and functioning as an inferior tribunal from whose decisions a right of appeal to the courts should exist, to determine whether he has acted within his proper jurisdiction.

Nevertheless, by virtue of the statute permitting summary removals, and a peculiarly indefensible decision by a divided court, the governor's high-handed action was sustained, his domination of the board of regents was made possible, the dismissal of the president of the university was effected, and higher education in the state of Washington was dealt a blow from which it may not recover for a generation.

Many years earlier a bitter controversy raged around the removal of two of the regents of the Kansas State Agricultural College at Manhattan. The issues are somewhat obscured, but the record of the case is of interest on account of certain trenchant observations made by some of the judges before whom it was reviewed in the course of extensive litigation. A statute authorized the governor to suspend the regents and order an investigation of their conduct by a committee of five members of the legislature. He could then dismiss or reinstate them "according to the findings of said committee." Such a committee, appointed to investigate the regents, submitted a report signed by four of its members, finding that two of the regents had been guilty of certain gross irregularities in connection with their duties. Thereupon the

governor removed the two regents and appointed others in their stead.

The appellate court ordered the reinstatement of the two regents on account of certain irregularities in the procedure of the investigating committee, and discussed the public policy involved in an eloquent paragraph:

The reputation of a citizen of the state, holding an office, ought not to be besmirched, a stigma of reproach fixed to it, and the citizen deprived of a valuable right, except for some serious misfeasance or nonfeasance in respect to his office, or some conduct of immorality that renders him unfit for its performance; otherwise, honorable men would be deterred from accepting an office, and serving the state to its best interests. The state would be deprived of the services of its best citizens, and its interests turned over to political adventurers and speculators in public office.

The decision of the appellate court was reversed by the supreme court, which held that the evidence was sufficient to justify the order of removal, and that small irregularities in the investigation and report were of no consequence. However, the chief justice dissented from the opinion of his colleagues, and wrote a blistering denunciation of the intrusion of political partisanship into the control of higher education:

These charges are trivial. They were made and prosecuted, as everybody knows, for the purpose of ousting the officers named and thereby gaining political control of one of the educational institutions of the state. They were made and prosecuted in that spirit of malignant partisanship which is the curse of American politics, and they do but provoke a retaliatory assault when the trembling balance of political majorities in this state shall go the other way. They were made and prosecuted to subserve the ends of office for politicians and not of education for the youth. Similar charges and proceedings by the office-seekers of my party shall never have countenance by me, nor will I be deterred from denouncing those made and conducted by political opponents as causeless, wicked, and despicable.

Whatever may have been the merits of the case, long since obscured by the passage of time, it at least served to call forth from the venerable chief justice a polemic masterpiece!

REMOVAL BY IMPEACHMENT

Every state except Oregon provides for the removal of the principal state officers by a process of impeachment, generally closely similar to the impeachment procedure for federal officers specified in the United States Constitution. In several states members of educational governing boards have been held not to be "state officers" within the meaning of the constitutional provisions for removal by impeachment. However, members of the Board of Trustees of State Institutions of Higher Learning in Mississippi are expressly subject to impeachment in the same manner as other civil officers of the state; and the only other process provided for their removal is conviction in court of willful neglect or misconduct in office.

Impeachment is everywhere a cumbersome and time-consuming process, seldom used and very rarely resulting in actual removal from office. For this reason it is often thought not appropriately applicable to governing board members. But it is suited to state officers of high dignity and independence; and what officers are more deserving of this status than those charged with forming the educational policy of the state?

DANGERS IN THE POWER OF SUMMARY REMOVAL

Experience in the state of Washington and elsewhere has amply demonstrated that the existence of the power of summary removal is a constant threat to the integrity of a governing board. This power may be used to destroy the fruits of years of constructive statesmanship, and place the control of the board in the hands of a political clique. Long and overlapping terms are of no avail as safeguards of the board's independence, if the power of removal is not carefully restricted.

It is far better that the statutes should be entirely silent on the subject than that they should provide for some summary process; for, as has been shown, when the statutes are silent the courts will not sanction *ex parte* removals.

The theory that the governor should be given full authority and responsibility in the state administration requires that he shall possess power to remove administrative officers in the departments which may be placed directly under his control. But no one pretends that any governor is or can be made fully responsible for the control of state-supported higher education. The idea is repugnant to the whole history of higher education in the United States. Every state has set up one or more collegial governing bodies having overlapping terms, with the express purpose of making higher educational policy immune from and independent of the fluctuating fortunes of partisan politicians. The salutary movement toward centralization of chaotic state administrations in the hands of the governor cannot wisely be extended to embrace the control of education.

Granting that educational control properly belongs to lay boards having continuity of personnel and possessing independence from partisan interference, it seems well that the power to remove their members should be withheld entirely from the governor or any other executive officer. As herein indicated, there are other ways by which it may be provided for with less likelihood of abuse. Members may be made removable by the board itself, or by conviction in court, or by impeachment. None of these methods is likely to result in removals for trivial or unworthy causes; but each of them is workable, as well as compatible with the dignity of the office.

The Council at Work

THE Council at Work is a brief summary of the outstanding new projects in which the Council is interested, as well as a progress report on undertakings already launched. It is hoped that this survey will give to the members of the Council and those interested in its work a more intimate view of the Council's development. Individuals desiring further information regarding subjects mentioned in this section are invited to write to the offices of the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

The autumn meeting of the Executive Committee of the Council was held in Washington, D. C. on October 21, 1936. The Committee on Problems and Plans in Education had met the two preceding days in New York City.

The Executive Committee accepted the application of Bethany College, Bethany, West Virginia, for institutional membership. This increased the institutional membership to 326 and the total membership of the Council to 383.

On the recommendation of President George F. Zook, the Executive Committee changed the title of Associate Director to Vice President to make it conform to the terminology of the Council.

Vice President C. S. Marsh was appointed editor of THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD and assumes his new duties with this issue. Dr. Marsh was also named editor of all publications, while Mr. Donald J. Shank was chosen as assistant editor and business manager of publications. A Committee on Editorial Policy was named to consider the publication problems of the

Council: President D. A. Robertson of Goucher College, chairman, Dean H. G. Doyle, George Washington University, and Mr. W. D. Boutwell, chief of the editorial division of the United States Office of Education.

FIFTH EDUCATIONAL CONFERENCE

The Fifth Educational Conference, held under the auspices of the Committee on Measurement and Guidance and the Cooperative Test Service of the Council, the Commission on the Relation of School and College of the Progressive Education Association, and the Educational Records Bureau, met in New York City on October 29 and 30, 1936. The conference was the largest of these meetings, all of which have been directed by Dr. Ben D. Wood, director of the Cooperative Test Service. The proceedings of the conference have been published by the Council as a supplement to the October issue of the RECORD and are for sale at fifty cents a copy.

EDUCATIONAL BROADCASTING CONFERENCE

The American Council on Education was one of the 18 national organizations which sponsored the First National Conference on Educational Broadcasting in Washington on December 10, 11, and 12, 1936. More than 700 individuals registered for the general meetings and the 22 conference sections devoted to special aspects of radio broadcasting. Dr. Zook and Dr. Marsh were, respectively, chairman and executive secretary of the committee in charge of the conference.

Among the speakers who appeared on the general program were: The Honorable Harold L. Ickes, Secretary of the Interior; His Excellency, M. André de Laboulaye, the ambassador of France; Mr. David Sarnoff, president of the Radio Corporation of America; Mr. Hendrik Willem Van Loon, Dr. J. W. Studebaker, President William Mather Lewis, Dean H. W. Odum, and Professor A. N. Holcombe.

The University of Chicago Press will publish the proceedings.

REPRESENTATIVES OF FOREIGN NATIONS

The officers of the Council entertained the diplomatic representatives of 14 foreign nations maintaining embassies in Washington at luncheon on November 12, 1936. With representatives of the Department of State and the Office of Education, the group discussed problems related to the American educational system, such as state educational systems, accredited colleges and universities, and licensure.

FINANCIAL ADVISORY SERVICE

An advisory committee to the Financial Advisory Service was authorized by the Executive Committee at its October meeting. The committee is composed of

Lloyd Morey, University of Illinois, *Chairman*
J. Harvey Cain, Catholic University of America
John C. Christensen, University of Michigan
E. S. Erwin, Stanford University
H. S. Ford, Massachusetts Institute of Technology
John Dale Russell, University of Chicago
John L. Seaton, Albion College
W. E. Wagoner, Ball State Teachers College

Mr. George E. Van Dyke, former technical associate of the Service, resigned on December 1, 1936, to accept an appointment at the Case School of Applied Science. Mr. John B. Goodwin, of Minneapolis, Minnesota, was named in his place. Mr. A. Robert Seass has been appointed as research assistant.

CONFERENCE OF STATE TESTING LEADERS

The Committee on Measurement and Guidance sponsored a conference of a number of leaders of state testing programs in New York City on October 28, 1936, to discuss their common problems and to suggest means by which a central

agency could assist various state programs. Thirteen leading state testing programs were represented at the conference.

MOTION PICTURES IN EDUCATION

Dr. Charles F. Hoban, Jr., of Duke University and Pennsylvania State Teachers College at Clarion, has been named associate in motion picture education. Mrs. B. F. Langworthy, president of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, has been added to the membership of the committee supervising this project.

HISTORY AND ACTIVITIES OF THE COUNCIL

The third edition of *The American Council on Education: History and Activities* was published in November and distributed to the members of the Council and other interested individuals. This is the descriptive pamphlet which interprets the work of the Council. Copies may be obtained by writing to the offices of the Council, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

BUSINESS EDUCATION

The President and Vice President of the Council met in conference with a group of deans of collegiate schools of business on November 23 and 24, 1936, at Princeton, New Jersey, to discuss means by which the Council may assist the Association of Collegiate Schools of Business to further plans for a study of business education.

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

Under the sponsorship of the Committee on Standards, Dr. Raymond Walters, chairman of that committee, held a conference at the Palmer House, Chicago, on December 28 to which came several representatives from each of the professions of dentistry, engineering, law, and medicine to discuss educational problems common to the several professions. The Chairman and the Vice President of the Council attended.

CONFERENCES AND MEETINGS

The Council has been represented by its administrative officers at the following meetings since October:

- Association of Urban Universities, Detroit, Michigan
- Cleveland Conference, Chicago, Illinois
- Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association, Chicago, Illinois
- Fifth Educational Conference, New York City
- First National Conference on Educational Broadcasting, Washington, D. C.
- Horace Mann Centennial Celebration, Yellow Springs, Ohio
- Illinois High School Conference, Urbana, Illinois
- National Council of Chief State School Officers, Chattanooga, Tennessee
- National Education Association 1938 Yearbook Commission, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
- State University Association, Washington, D. C.

The
EDUCATIONAL RECORD

VOL. XVIII

NUMBER 2

APRIL
1937

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AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

1936-37

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- SECRETARY:** George Johnson, representing the National Catholic Educational Association
- TREASURER:** Corcoran Thom, president of the American Security and Trust Company, Washington, D. C.

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Published Quarterly by
THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION
744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

50 CENTS A COPY \$2.00 A YEAR

Entered as second-class matter June 8, 1932, at the Post Office at Washington, D. C., under the Act of August 24, 1912

The Educational Record

April 1937

CLARENCE STEPHEN MARSH, *Editor*

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The Educational Record

April



1937

The Concept of Regionalism in Higher Education*

By O. J. HAGEN

IT IS sometimes said that there is nothing new under the sun, but the concept of regionalism comes close to being just that. If we think back to the early history of this country we will recall that the population was scattered along the Atlantic seaboard, with a few hardy pioneers pushing gradually toward the West. For the most part people lived in small towns or on the farms of the open country. There were no cities of any great size, measured by modern standards. In the North, Boston, New York, and Philadelphia were the outstanding communities of their time. In the South, Charleston occupied a position of importance. But the residents of these cities were numbered only in the thousands even down into the beginning of the last century.

One other characteristic cannot be overlooked in reconstructing in memory the nature of life in this country during the early years of our history. Not only were the people living in small communities, but they were, in a real sense, cut off from each other. To realize this one has only to read some of the accounts of early travelers. For example, a man

* The presidential address before the meeting of the Association of Governing Boards of State Universities and Allied Institutions, held at the University of Kentucky, Lexington, November 12-14, 1936.

named Harlow wrote a book a few years ago called *Old Post Roads*. He described vividly the difficulties of travel in the United States even up to the time of the war with England in 1812. There were no railroads, there were no automobiles, and there were no highways that we would dignify with that name. Travel was a hazardous undertaking and men stayed at home as much as they could. Mr. Harlow reprints in his book the stories of men who went from Boston to New York in a little less than a month's time, and then thanked God for their safe arrival. Life centered in each community in those days, and men did not know, and many did not even care, what was happening at distant places.

One gets surprising examples of the isolation of the early historical period if he looks into the newspapers of that time. There was no telegraph and the only way an editor could get his news was by the post, which came slowly and irregularly. Some mail came by sailing vessel, but a wrong wind would delay arrival. If you open some of those early newspapers your eye will catch little notices that read something like this:

NO NEWS! NO NEWS!

The editor is sorry that he can not give his readers news from the south this week, but a delay in the arrival of the stage from Philadelphia, because of heavy rains, has delayed the post. We trust that we shall have occurrences to report in our next issue.

Imagine picking up the *Minneapolis Tribune* or the *New York Times* to read an apology from the editor that he didn't have news for his readers today.

I stress these seemingly irrelevant points because they serve to make vivid the main idea that underlies any discussion of regionalism. There was no problem of regionalism in a nation made up of isolated, relatively non-communicating, independent, and self-sufficient communities.

In these early days of which I speak, problems were local problems, and this was as true of education as the others. The academies grew up and the colleges developed. They

were scattered liberally throughout the Eastern states. They were small in size and made no attempt to serve large areas or large numbers of people. As a matter of fact, their "service" consisted of giving a rather formalized education to a highly selected group of students, many of whom were training for the ministry or law or medicine. It was a long time before education became less selective, and the doors were opened to the masses of the people. It was, it may be added, the development of state education at the college level that stimulated this.

This, then, is the picture down to about 1830: the small community self-contained, looking generally inward, and quite able to take care of its own needs and solve its own problems. What happened nearby or at a distance may have had a curiosity interest but it did not vitally affect the lives of the people.

Then came the revolution in transportation and communication. The railroad started puffing about 1830. The "iron highways" began extending into the frontiers. Community was linked with community. New resources were opened up. The world was undergoing a change of a most fundamental nature. Two ideas especially were being completely transformed. First was the idea of speed. Boston became only a few hours away from New York instead of weeks away. The trip was relatively simple. When a train went from Philadelphia to the New Jersey shore opposite New York City in eight hours, an editor waxed eloquent of "this breathtaking speed." A little later, about 1845, the telegraph began to develop and be used. This, too, contributed to a new sense of speed—for men were able to learn what happened miles away almost instantly. And it is a curious fact that when men can move over the surface of the earth with rapidity, or can learn quickly what is happening far away from them, they begin to *want* to move rapidly and to know what is happening. Speed feeds on itself and stimulates an urge to more speed.

The second idea that underwent modification was that of

distance. Before the coming of these new inventions the world seemed big. The horizon of a man's life was bounded by the distance he could drive with a horse and buggy in a day's time. But when the railroad made it easy to go quickly to nearby cities, and then to more distant ones, the horse-and-buggy conception of distance became modified. To Boston residents, New York now seemed rather close at hand. When steam vessels and cables brought England and the continent of Europe closer, the whole world seemed to shrink. The new sense of distance and the new sense of speed gave a new outlook to men. But more than that, it greatly increased their interdependence and expanded the area within which they customarily did their daily business. No longer could one describe this country in terms of isolated communities. All of that has passed and each new invention—moving pictures, radio, and most important of all, the automobile—has pushed us farther away from that original simplicity and self-containedness.

There was a period of time in which the country grew rapidly. The expansion in the years after the Civil War, accompanied by the industrial development, is too well known to require an elaboration. We grew bigger and bigger. New states were added to the West; new territories were opened up. We became, in short, a great nation extending from coast to coast. This could happen because our sense of distance and our sense of speed had changed and because mechanical devices bound us together.

More important, however, was the fact that men had to begin to *think* in different terms. With the interdependence of which I have spoken, they found that things happening at distant points did become of concern to them. What happened in the farm states of the new West was related to the way men lived in New York. What happened in Europe had its influences. The self-contained community became an historical fact, but it no longer existed as a reality. Problems were on a grander scale, and related to people living over wider areas. Men likewise *had* to begin thinking in broader

terms and to consider their problems in their relation to the wider areas. And what is more, those wider areas could not be defined by state lines. You may color a state pink on the map, and it stands out sharp and clear when you open the book and look at it. You can color the neighboring state green, and to the eye it appears that a clear-cut line of separation exists. But the growing interdependence and the new transportation and communication were proving that no such line existed in fact. The problems that men faced did not respect those green and pink squares—they spread over them with a total disregard of where the boundaries were drawn. In short, this country became transformed from a nation of isolated communities into a nation of interdependent regions.

This regionalism cannot be escaped. One or two examples will illustrate this. New York City is the great port of entry in this country. It is also the center of population. There, massed on the tiny island of Manhattan, is a concentration of people that creates problems our grandfathers never dreamed of. These people must be fed; food must be brought into the city for them. The goods they manufacture must be shipped. As the city itself grows, many who work there by day seek homes outside the city itself. The great suburbs develop. There are tremendous problems of sanitation. There are problems of fire protection and police protection. But above all, there are the problems of traffic congestion. These problems all focus on what we think of as the city of New York, yet obviously they are not limited to it. The traffic problems, to choose one example, involve the Connecticut towns and the New Jersey towns, the up-state New York towns and the Long Island towns from which these people move back and forth. They are interstate problems. There is only one way to handle them, and that is by some organization that will include them all. Thus it is that the Port Authority develops, and the Regional Planning Commission for the New York Area. Regionalism and a regional way of thinking were *forced* on the people.

Shifting nearer home, it is perfectly clear that such prob-

lems as flood control and soil erosion are not limited to a single state and cannot be solved by the action of a single state. They are regional problems. Such an undertaking as the Tennessee Valley Authority is a regional problem, conceived in terms of a region and developed for a region.

This is a somewhat lengthy preface to a discussion of education, but it is all pertinent, for it is just as necessary for those of us who are engaged in educational enterprises to begin thinking in regional terms as it is for the Traffic Authority of New York to do so. Unfortunately our thinking in the field of education has lagged. We are just beginning to awaken to the fact that regionalism as a concept has as much significance for us as it has for the others.

As I stated earlier, education developed on a local basis in the early days of this country. As time went on the number of colleges multiplied, and all kinds of pressures and all kinds of aspirations contributed to that multiplication. The analogy may appear disrespectful, but the fact is colleges sprang up like mushrooms. In the *Educational Directory* for 1936, issued by the United States Office of Education, 1,706 institutions are listed, offering work above the high school level. As one looks at that list he is impressed with the fact that many of those colleges and universities are distributed without much rhyme or reason. They overlap, they duplicate, they compete. Such overlapping, duplication, and competition are clearly wasteful, whether one is considering the teaching of undergraduates, the training of professional students, or the development of research programs. Almost every one of these institutions tries to do its work just as though there were no other institution near it, or as though it were as isolated as if it existed in 1800 instead of 1936. It certainly does not appear to be an efficient distribution. What we have, educationally, is a system that would be adapted to the localized conditions that prevailed before the rise of modern communication and transportation, and we are trying to operate it successfully in an age in which regionalism is a fact.

Does it not seem clear that there must be some adaptation to the conditions that exist? Does it not seem apparent that there must be a re-examination of higher education so that the institutions may recast their programs and build their plans with some conception of the regional needs in mind? Let us look at these questions specifically from the point of view of the land-grant colleges. President L. D. Coffman has put the problem as clearly as any one in his biennial report for 1932-34. This is what he writes:

One of the most conspicuous illustrations of waste and duplication in higher education occurs in the land-grant colleges. The federal government has provided a land-grant college for each state and territory. It has set aside a sum of money for the operation and maintenance of certain work at these land-grant institutions. There is a duplication of plant, of offerings, of staff, and of equipment. A half dozen or more of these institutions are located in the same geographical area serving, in general, the same constituencies and undertaking to solve the same problems. The land-grant colleges located at Moscow, Idaho, and Pullman, Washington, are within eight miles of each other. At each institution work is being carried on in agronomy, animal husbandry, poultry, forestry, and in the other fields that relate to the advancement and improvement of agriculture. While this illustration is conspicuous because of the proximity of the institutions, it should be no more an object of consideration than the duplication that occurs among land-grant institutions in any given area. We find, for example, that studies in the breeding of livestock are under way at several land-grant institutions located in this particular area. There is a minimum amount of cooperation among these institutions. The studies are expensive; they require farms, herds, barns, feed for the stock, and a trained personnel. One or two stations adequately equipped and staffed for such studies would be enough. Scientists in related fields at other institutions in the same area might be invited to join in cooperating with the institutions at which these stations are established.

It is my candid opinion that the nation would be far ahead in productive scientific work in the field of agriculture—in all other fields of learning for that matter—if there were a regionalizing of institutions. One great university located somewhere here in the Northwest, staffed with the best minds that can be found, adequately equipped to study the problems of this region, would be more pro-

ductive scientifically than a half dozen institutions poorly equipped and inadequately staffed.¹

The problem is one that must have attention. It is encouraging to find that the Association of Land-Grant Colleges has been giving the matter consideration. More than fifty papers on the single subject of federal-state cooperation have been read in recent years, and behind them all lies some recognition that there is need for planning, in agricultural research as in other research, and that the planning cannot be in localized terms. The Committee on Experiment Station Organization and Policy of the Association has had the question of regionalism under advisement. Dr. J. Futrall in his presidential address to the Association spoke specifically on the point: "It seems unnecessary and, in fact, wasteful for every agricultural experiment station to divide up its work into numerous departments and to attempt to make each one of these a major department. By using the same funds that we now have, it is probable that more could be accomplished by a greater cooperation among the various agricultural experiment stations." I cite these as evidence that the problem of regionalism is rising to the foreground of attention. The National Resources Board has also been stimulating an interest in the regional concept.

How can the movement be furthered? It is first necessary to set up a generalized or ideal plan. The ideal plan would involve a study by each institution, public or private, of its own resources and the needs of the area it serves. There would then have to be a division of functions, so that each institution would carry on a program, whether of teaching or research, that would be related to its own resources as well as to the programs of the other institutions with which it would be cooperating. Each institution, in brief, would devote its energies to doing a few things well, but for the region as a whole all things would be done well. The needs of the

¹ "The President's Report for the Years 1932-1934," *Bulletin of the University of Minnesota*, XXXVII, No. 50 (Nov. 27, 1934), 30-31.

region would thus be adequately and efficiently met. No one believes that such planning and organization can develop at once, if at all. It is an ideal—but there is no harm, and much gain, in holding up an ideal.

President Coffman has talked specifically on this point in these words:

What is suggested with regard to land-grant institutions can be carried out to some extent among the universities themselves if their constituencies will subscribe to the agreement. Each institution might be encouraged to develop along those lines most favorable to it as a result of its location. Neighboring institutions might agree to accept each other's work. There is no real reason, for example, why there should be several departments of dairy husbandry in the Northwest, several schools of forestry, several schools of mines, why there should be more than one school of medicine or dentistry. Instead of states spending comparatively large sums of money to maintain institutions on a meager basis, why should not the representatives of the states agree, following a careful study of their needs, that they will maintain a certain number of scholarships available at other institutions of learning where the needed work is being carried on? As an illustration, why should not North Dakota, South Dakota, and Montana provide a certain number of scholarships for medicine and for dentistry, in which fields there will always be need for highly trained practitioners? If the recipients were required to attend institutions of the highest grade, the general quality of the service could be raised in the states granting the scholarships. The same could be done in many of the fields of agriculture—as a matter of fact, more or less in every field. Under these circumstances, of course, scholars would be expected to attend the best equipped university, there to study the problems of the region in which they reside.

Or, to take another example, why should the University of Minnesota undertake to build up a library which will be among the most distinguished libraries in every field? Why should it enter into competition with the Universities of Wisconsin, Chicago, Michigan, Illinois, and other reputable institutions of similar standing? Why should there not be an understanding that Michigan, for example, will become the chief library center for the Romance languages, and that some other institution, let us say the University of Minnesota, will become the chief center of the Scandinavian languages? Why

should we not enter into similar agreements covering other fields? This, of course, would mean that each institution would provide all those books and pamphlets and other library materials that are essential for its undergraduate work; but on the higher levels, in the fields where effort is being made to do scholarly and scientific work of the highest quality, competition among institutions for materials obviously limits and even cripples the full development of scholarly and scientific work.²

As I say, a move in the direction of the acceptance of the regional concept in higher education will come slowly, and it must be preceded with long and patient research. But the movement is necessary if higher education is to perform its functions with the greatest efficiency and is to give the maximum service for the money that is expended. There will come a time when we must adapt our educational programs more closely to the needs of the areas the institutions are serving, and do this consciously and with planning. It will involve some changing or exchanging of functions. Not all institutions will seek, as now, to do almost everything. There will have to be some kind of a division of labor.

Having suggested the idea, vaguely stated as it is, it becomes incumbent upon me to indicate some possible ways in which even the slightest gain can be made in seeking to achieve it. I will mention three things, all of them applying to public institutions primarily:

1. The increasing rôle played by the federal government in financing land-grant programs will unquestionably result in more attempts to plan for educational research on a regional basis. Mr. M. L. Wilson, assistant secretary of agriculture, in an address on "The Rôles of the United States Department of Agriculture and the State Experiment Stations in Regional Research Programs," delivered a year ago, included this statement:

Agricultural planning must rest upon the very best research that can be conducted in the field of agricultural adjustment. This type of research cannot be conducted on a state basis alone. An individual state

² *Ibid.*, pp. 31-32.

can go only a limited distance because what happens in other states has a bearing upon what will happen within its boundaries. Hence, if we are to have research in the field of national agricultural planning, there is no other approach than the regional approach, a synthetic putting together of facts arising in more than a single state.³

2. I fully expect that in the relatively near future most of the states that have not already done so are going to scrutinize with care the organization of higher education within the state, with a view to reorganization in the interest of economy and greater educational efficiency. Many states have already done this and unified systems of higher education are being created, even to include the state universities. In the process of scrutiny, I suspect that many of the states are going to find that they are offering certain types of work that is very costly, and that actually it would be a gain, economically and educationally, to discontinue certain lines and send to other institutions the students who may wish the type of training that has been discontinued. If this becomes a reality there will develop, let us say, a major medical school in a region to which students from various states will go on scholarships provided by the states. This is not entirely speculation. This proposal has been made and given careful consideration in some states already. The federal government has stimulated the idea, too, by utilizing some of our state universities as regional training centers for men and women who are entering government services. Thus at the University of Minnesota we have had social workers sent to us by the federal government from the entire region, including the Dakotas, and with expenses paid by the federal government. If this is feasible for the federal government to do, why is it not equally feasible for the states, in selected lines of work? Local pride and other interests may resist this idea, but I expect to see it grow and if it does, it is a step toward a wider acceptance of the regional concept.

3. I fully believe that institutions might go much further

³ *Forty-ninth Annual Proceedings of the Land-Grant College Association* (1935), p. 173. Published 1936.

than they have in entering into institutional agreements of one kind and another that will eliminate some of the duplication that we now find. The library book exchange has been developed by college libraries, so that they may share rare or ordinarily inaccessible volumes. A professor in New York by the name of Daniel Sanford recently wrote a book entitled *Inter-Institutional Agreements in Higher Education*. In this he enumerated and described all the formal agreements between institutions that he could locate. He found 115 such agreements covering all sorts of undertakings and providing for interchange of materials or mutual use of facilities. This is not a large number, but it indicates the direction in which we are probably going to move. These agreements, Sanford's book indicates, are beneficial. If they are beneficial in 115 cases, why not in many more?

I hope that this discussion has done two things: First, I have tried to indicate the inevitability of the growth of the regional concept. Second, I have tried to suggest the need for educational authorities to look at their own programs in terms of the new regional needs, and under this I have included some things that give an indication that we are actually moving, although slowly, in the right direction. The presentation has perhaps been overlong, but the basic problem with which it is concerned is of such fundamental importance that there is some justification for the length.

Education for the Middle of the Road*

By WILLIAM F. RUSSELL

WHEN I arrived in Paris last August, my attention was at once struck by large posters on every vacant wall announcing a great meeting in the interests of international peace. M. Blum, the Premier, was to speak. Several Cabinet members were to appear. Scheduled on the program were important foreigners, especially from England, Belgium, and Spain. The place was the Park of the Princes at St. Cloud and the time was all day, with the high spot in the late afternoon. We had an early lunch that Sunday; we took a taxi through the Bois de Boulogne, across the Seine and up the hill at St. Cloud, and then were in heavy crawling traffic, just like the rush hour. We would go a few feet, stop, and move a little again. We could make no progress. So we paid our driver, descended, and walked just as everyone else had to do, through the heat, through the dust, along with the excited mob. On all sides and in between were the usual vendors, hawking their wares—all sorts of insignia, buttons for the lapel, belt buckles, pins, hat ornaments, and flags. These insignia had two motifs, one the hammer and sickle, the other the three arrows, representing respectively the Communist party and the popular front, the coalition of Communists and Socialists now in power. The flags were all red, sometimes with the hammer and sickle, sometimes without. Peddlers were selling song sheets, "Buy the words and music," and first on the list I found the "*Internationale*," the Communist song. Gangs of boys and girls and young men and women would thread their way through the walking crowd, singing or chanting over and over again, not "Hay foot, straw

* Read before the Sixty-seventh Annual Convention of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, New Orleans, Louisiana, February 23, 1937.

foot" or "Hail! Hail! the gang's all here," but "*A bas, la defense nationale!*" or "*Encore la guillotine.*"

After plenty of difficulty—at least two miles of crowded walk, pushing through milling crowds at the barriers, fighting our way, finding an opening and pressing on—we came to the Park of the Princes, an enormous open field circled by trees, a great natural arena, as big as several ball parks. On the high point to one side had been erected a great platform and stage. Loud speakers raised their horns there, and at intervals everywhere. Thousands of people were sitting on the ground toward the center or standing around the outside. The newspapers estimated 500,000, and I do not doubt it. I never saw so many at one time. For once in my life I felt a fear of sheer numbers.

Speaker after speaker came to the rostrum. Some were arousing emotions to a fever pitch. Up would go 100,000 clenched fists (the sign of Communism). In rolling resounding tones would come the sound of "*Internationale.*" Red flags would wave. I saw a little boy of fourteen or fifteen months, carried on his father's shoulder, one arm circling his father's head, the other held aloft with a clenched baby fist. Not one French flag did I see; never one tricolor.

How would you feel, in a crowd of Americans six times the size of that at the Derby or the Rose Bowl, ten times the size of the World's Series, five hundred times the size of this audience; addressed by the leaders of Congress, the principal members of the Cabinet, the leading social workers and professors; and never see the Stars and Stripes, only the red flag; never see the American eagle, only the hammer and sickle; see the clenched fist upraised, even by little children; and hear our young people chant, "Down with the army and navy" and "Once more the guillotine," which means not "Soak the rich" but kill them. I tremble for France!

But this meeting did not represent everybody. I have many friends in France in several different country towns as well as in Paris. They are not the rich. Among them, for instance, are two or three hotel keepers and restaurant proprietors,

writers, doctors, dentists, a secretary of an agricultural society, two big farmers, several merchants, some traveling salesmen, garage owners and automobile repairmen, the mayors of two towns, several booksellers, and of course a number of elementary and secondary school teachers as well as professors. And to these friends, one after another, I talked, just as I have for several years past. Conditions are terrible. The radicals have complete control. Blum is not a Communist, but he is a prelude to Communism, and the Communists know it. The government is helpless. It is weak and ineffective. The only hope is some sort of a mass movement to turn the rascals out. Several asked me if I had read the new book by the son of the Royalist pretender to the throne. Others were talking of the Croix de Feu, the Fascist organization of Colonel de la Rocque. On Sundays I would go to the local cathedral, or church, or to open-air services in the mountains to hear the sermon and practice my French. Every sermon, no matter how it started, came back to Communism, the menace of Communism, its danger, the need of combating it.

The year previous I had been in France on Bastille Day, the French Fourth of July. After the military parade in the morning and a demonstration by a thousand fighting planes, the afternoon was given over to two great mass demonstrations. From somewhere near the Place de la Concorde some 100,000 Fascists, sixteen abreast, marched west toward the Arc de Triomphe, protesting against the weakness of the government. And from somewhere near the City Hall, in the opposite direction, east on the Rue de Rivoli and the Boulevard St. Antoine, to the place where the Bastille once stood, marched some 300,000 of the radicals. Of the four leaders, three were professors, one of whom I know very well—a charming and delightful man, mild and contemplative. In one direction went the Fascists, in the other the Communists; and figuratively as well as literally they turned their backs on and were marching away from the old Bourbon Palace, now the seat of the Chamber of Deputies, the home of democratic government in France. On that July day in 1935 I saw

400,000 Frenchmen dividing themselves into two armies and marching away from each other, leaving democracy behind. Today, eighteen months later, it seems as if all of France had fallen in line. Part of the people have marched to the left. Part of the people have marched to the right. France has been cut in two; and there seems to be no middle ground.

The rift has come, not only in the ranks of citizens, but in the ranks of the teachers as well. At the Congress of Elementary School Teachers held in Lille last August, the resolutions would remind you of those taken by our most radical organizations. In the event of war, the teachers would refuse to bear arms. Their non-cooperation would impede mobilization. They registered approval of the forty-hour week, increased pay, vacations with pay, collective bargaining, the rule of labor. They stated that the capitalistic system was doomed. I am sure that the Communists smiled. When these resolutions came up for discussion in the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate, they were warmly applauded by the left and sharply attacked by the right.

Fifty million Frenchmen have divided into two hostile camps. Can fifty million Frenchmen be wrong?

Each group has its own adherents; and each group is striving to extend itself. They fight for the press, for the radio, for the motion picture. Each struggles to capture the youth; each sets up its own youth organization; and each is trying to control the university and the public schools. "A house divided against itself," said Lincoln, "cannot stand. I believe that this government cannot endure half slave and half free. I do not expect the house to fall, but I expect it will cease to be divided. It will become all one thing or all the other." "The struggle between two worlds," said Mussolini, "can permit no compromise. . . . Either we or they! Either their ideas or ours! Either our state or theirs!" There is nothing more dangerous than this bimodal division. There is nothing so fraught with disaster. When every citizen turns either right or left and joins the march, enemies may

be back to back for a time; but sooner or later there is an about-face and they march to the attack.

How does this bimodal division come about? Where does it begin? How does it develop?

The origin lies in a conviction that there is something wrong in the world, something that we should correct. Our customs, our traditions, our habits have grown up over a long time. They are not in accord with what we know. We have not applied our intelligence to our life. This dissatisfaction takes a variety of forms. Some say we have an awkward calendar, varied length months, movable feasts and holidays, a stupid and cumbersome affair. Or we have an archaic system of weights and measures. Why have inches, feet, yards, rods, and miles; pints, quarts, and gallons; ounces, pounds, and tons; and the like? Our system of spelling is cumbersome and complicated. It is almost as difficult as an ideographic language. When one visits a school in a country where there is a phonetic language, the children year for year in school seem to be two years in advance of ours. Some criticize our lack of applied eugenics. Why should morons breed morons, and delinquents breed delinquents? Others would curb or prohibit gambling or use of alcoholic liquors. There are institutions for the care of the sick, the poor, and the criminal that are sometimes inadequate, inefficient, and even cruel. Opportunities for education are offered unequally, the most intelligent and forward communities, which need education the least, generally offering the most, and vice versa. There are deficiencies in our diet. The multiplication of religious sects causes unnecessary duplication and expense. There is even something wrong with the economic system. Here we have the raw materials and the means of production, manufacture, and distribution to give the necessities and some of the luxuries to all; and millions are unemployed and without the power to purchase what we need. We run from one period of prosperity to another of depression. Our system of agriculture is laying waste our land. Floods on the one hand and dust storms on the other are exhausting our heritage. All this we

know is wrong. All of us can envision a "new social order" in which these evils would need not be. Here we all stand together. It is when we come to the programs for the solution of these evils that we fall apart.

For the first reaction is to give up hope in the possibility of achieving improvement through a democratic society and a democratic form of government. Take our own case, for instance.

The government planners of 1787 either through themselves or through their fathers and grandfathers had experienced what tyranny in government may mean. They had borne the yoke of despotism when there was no consent of the governed. They had experienced taxation without representation. They knew what life was like where there was no liberty of conscience or speech, nor guarantee of property or persons. So when they came to plan the new government, their aim was not to make one as effective, prompt, and adaptable as possible. Far from this. They knew that the benevolent tyrant only gave that. They knew that the young United States would be better organized, better defended, and more adequately supported in eight years' time if George Washington were to be given complete control. But they were thinking in terms of "in the long run." To them the despotic future outweighed the efficient present. So they balanced House against Senate, the executive against the judicial, the judicial against the legislative, the legislative against the executive, the federal government against the state and the locality. They wanted a government just as good as it could be under a good man, that would not be too bad under a bad man. They made it ineffective on purpose.

Similarly the Fathers had known what economic tyranny may mean. The Europe of the eighteenth century had been in the control of governments who sought to order man's economic life. Government functionaries and organizations of capital and labor had ruled with an iron hand; and oppression in trade, industry, and commerce had proved to be quite as misery-yielding and hope-destroying as tyranny over life

and limb. So our government was kept out of business; not that immediately the young America might not have been given a lift, but that in the long run business might not be enchained by government decree and made to march in a lock step to the tune of an army of functionaries.

This democratic form of government and social life, found in the United States, the British Empire, France, and a few other countries, has worked for a new social order; but it has worked too slowly to suit some people. From the beginning there have been some who believe that no important social reform can ever come by these methods, at least in time to do any good.

We could go back into our own history and review the various critics of democracy and those who, failing to understand it, tried to destroy the system of checks and balances, which was the core of the idea. We could list Presidents who tried to override Congress and the Supreme Court, Supreme Courts that tried to overrule Presidents and Congress, and Congresses that tried to hamper the Executive and defy the Court. We have one state that has abandoned the bicameral legislature. We have had illustrations of almost dictatorial power in cities and states where, for one reason or another, almost complete power has centered in an individual. We recall the Technocrats, of blessed memory, who, in order to control production and regulate consumption and give an engineering administration to our country, would have given our people work, food, clothing, shelter, leisure, and security, in fact, everything except liberty. But no one here, like Mussolini, Hitler, or Colonel de la Rocque, has yet seriously suggested donning red, white, and blue shirts, marching on Washington, seizing the government, and making so-and-so Pooh Bah of the United States. Yet we have a League against War and Fascism; and it is said that there are Fascists about.

At the same time, there have been people desiring a new social order, who are also disillusioned by democracy. They say that capitalism is doomed, that *laissez faire* cannot work. This system, unplanned and unmanaged, leads inevitably to

war. The few get much, the many little. No such society can last. Let us abolish capital. Do away with banks and credit. Substitute government ownership for private. Operate everything for the benefit of all. Let no man live upon investments. Eliminate inheritance. By the sweat of his brow shall he gain his daily bread. Arthur Bullard was talking with Lenin in Switzerland in 1905. They had discussed the objectives of Communism. "You do not believe that the Czar will ever do this for Russia," said Bullard. "No," said Lenin. "Or that the people will?" asked Bullard. "No," said Lenin, "they are too ignorant to know what is for their own good, too subservient to dare, too hungry to have the energy." "Then who will?" asked Bullard. "I shall," said Lenin.

This is the essence of the Communistic ideal. Its sin is to abolish capitalism, settle the class war by winning for the workers, organize everybody in unions except those who have property or investments, govern by representation of unions, and nationalize most industry, agriculture, and commerce. The *Daily Worker* explains the ideal. These extremists have a definite set of tactics. They center their campaign about injustice to the worker and the benefit of labor unions, about the blessings of peace and the horror of war, about prejudice against the Negro, Jew, or any member of an oppressed race; and in addition to these reasonable ideals they stress the iniquity of anyone who owns anything or has saved anything, as contrasted with the virtue of one who owns nothing at all. There is also a campaign against religion, although it is directed against the more highly organized and formalistic churches.

I saw the campaign in Russia in 1919. I have seen it in France for a decade. I have watched it for nearly twenty years in the United States in one form or another. It is very cleverly conducted. It seems to have some financial support. The seeds are sown in the fertile soil of injustice, distress, and discontent; and they sprout and grow and flower where there is oppression, censorship, and ignorance.

To illustrate how the campaign works, I shall quote from

the directions sent to members by one youth organization, allied with Communism, which has chapters in many American colleges and high schools.

Our members must be ready, even if it involves a drastic and difficult break with their normal comfortable habits of life, to enter personally and openly into strikes of industrial and distributive workers . . . into struggles of farmers for a fair price for their produce and possession of their homes . . . into resistance of racial minorities against oppression and discrimination, into the struggles of groups and individuals for the American rights of free speech, free assemblage, and other civil liberties . . . realizing that three-fourths of the American people are in the position of underdog to a system which they have not learned how to control, we must vigorously and actively take the part of the underdog wherever he raises his voice or arm.

Nor does this participation mean merely a polite and charitable support, an academic encouragement from the outside without involving too seriously one's own safety or reputation. It means going into the *very center of the conflict* not as an onlooker or as a moral guide but as a sincere and earnest fighter. It means standing in picket lines, speaking to strike meetings, contributing to strikers' funds; it means marching in demonstrations of unemployed, taking part in farm strikes, joining in the prevention of mortgage foreclosures and evictions; . . . it means putting oneself in the very vanguard of the actual everyday battle to compel the profit-makers to grant now to the people of America a larger share of the nation's inheritance and to prepare the people for taking and administering of what is its own.

"To prepare the people," that is the Communist technique. And what is the form of preparation? Encourage hatred. Arouse jealousy. Inflammé envy. Stimulate picketing, striking, and public disorder. Pick out key institutions, like the important teacher training centers, universities, hospitals, big industries. Publish and distribute pamphlets full of innuendoes and lies. Do it over and over again. Accustom the people to petition, protest, and disorder and when the opportunity comes in a time of national danger or crisis or war, *seize the power*. It is a school of revolution.

These are the opposing philosophies that have divided France. These are the philosophies that will split the United

States unless we are on our guard. Yet both are very much alike—Communist, Fascist, and all of us start together. There is something wrong with the world. We want a new social order. But here we part company. Fascism (dictatorship of a political party) and Communism (dictatorship by labor unions) have abandoned democracy and in its place have adopted a primitive form of government much more easy to operate, but despotic from first to last and destined in the long run to breed misery and distress. The Fascists say: "Do you want a new social order? Follow me! I have a plan you can understand." The Communists say: "Do you want a new social order? Follow me! I shall lead you to the seizure of power." There is nothing indefinite. There is no mystery. Anybody can understand government by fist and club.

It is only the method of democracy that is hard to understand, and here the real issue lies. I think Dorothy Thompson is exactly right when she says:

We are, like the rest of the world, going through a period of profound social readjustment. And the question is not only what readjustment must be made, but it is also: In what spirit and by what method shall we approach a solution of our problems? Are we to seek solutions by fundamental democratic methods of investigation, reasonability, and knowledge, seeking everywhere the greatest possible measure of consent or are we to engage in naked contests of power with decisions determined by force and maintained by coercion? The whole philosophical basis of democracy rests upon a belief in human reason and the possibility of obtaining collaboration for specific ends between divergent groups. If that basis is abandoned, democracy is lost.

Arthur Morgan is also right when he says:

The foundation of civilized society is reliance on intelligent and sympathetic fairness and reasonableness rather than arbitrary power. Only to the extent that men have confidence that issues will be decided by efforts to reach the most reasonable conclusions can men disarm physically, economically, and socially.

We are now coming to the close, I think, of one of those cycles—like winter, spring, summer, fall, like prosperity and depression, like night and day—which has characterized edu-

cational discussion in our time. We have survived concentration and correlation, the five formal steps, teaching children to study, measurement, the project, curriculum reconstruction, and lately we have been occupied with dreaming of a new social order according to a comprehensive and intelligent plan. Beginning with Middletown and the Hoover Reports on Social and Economic Trends and the technocracy studies and stimulated by the depression which brought into high relief many long standing evils, we have centered our attention on what is wrong. We have studied it. We have described it. We have envisioned what might be. We have made a plan for the future.

On the one hand, we have stressed the bad present and on the other we have looked enthusiastically upon the ideal future. Each of us has constructed his own New Jerusalem; each has sought for a vision of his own City of God. Taking up the challenge which Counts hurled at us in 1932, we have faced the task of "creating a vision of a future America immeasurably more just and noble and beautiful than the America of today." We have constructed our Utopias.

And this has played right into the hands of the extremist, left or right, Communist or Fascist. For once we become sufficiently aware of our misery, and sufficiently burning for reform, we then turn to those who have a plan for solution. And who has a plan of action at once plain, simple, understandable, and concrete? Only the Communist or the Fascist. Anybody can see that you can't introduce a whole new Utopia by democratic means—soon.

What most people do not realize is that you cannot introduce a Utopia by violent means, either; although people all over the world think they can.

Ortega y Gasset says:

The fact is that every revolution cherishes the entirely chimerical object of realizing a more or less complete Utopia. The plan inevitably fails. Its failure creates the twin and antithetical phenomenon of all revolution, *viz*: counter-revolution. . . . Another revolution breaks out with yet another Utopia, a modification of the first, inscribed on

its banners. There is a fresh failure and a fresh reaction; and so it goes on until the social conscience begins to suspect that the ill success of these attempts is not due to the intrigues of their enemies, but to the contradictory elements inherent in the objects aimed at.¹

Upon another occasion I have developed this theme of Ortega y Gasset's, although I have not yet published the paper. I have argued at length that the wisest man cannot plan a Utopia which he is certain will be successful. Society is like an organism. There is always a chance of curing the disease and killing the patient. In the early days no one thought that the governmental experiment "noble in motive"—prohibition of the drinking of alcoholic beverages—would in the long run stimulate crime and disrespect for law. Certainly Rousseau had not the slightest idea that equality would kill liberty, or that liberty would kill equality. Who can tell whether a social change, most carefully planned, may not become like the English sparrow in America, or the European rabbit in Australia—nothing but a pest?

The period of curriculum construction was followed by the period of Utopia construction, and I think this period has run its course. What is to follow? What will excite us next? I am not a prophet, but I know what I should like to hear discussed next. Instead of harping upon our ills, instead of fermenting discontent, instead of setting up Utopias which cannot be realized, and driving us all to the camp either of the Fascists or the Communists, who have the only definite program, I should like to see all of us direct our attention, our thought, and our research to the problem of how to effect a *net social advance*, a change that is likely to last. We need not only a vision of the future America, "immeasurably better," but a program of how to approach that state by democratic means so well planned as to tactics that some advance will persist. This means that we shall stress the seeking of a solution by fundamental "methods of investigation, reasonability, and knowledge seeking everywhere the

¹ *The Modern Theme*, (New York: Norton, 1933), p. 117. Translated from the Spanish by J. Cleugh.

greatest possible measure of consent"—the democratic way, the method of education. We have had enough talk about the goal. Let us now talk about how to achieve it.

At this point those of us who call ourselves liberals should stop in our tracks, review the situation, and map our course. Is democracy extravagant, chimerical, impossible? Cannot *laissez faire* be modified and controlled? Must we abandon ship? Shall we give up and let someone seize the power?

The trouble with us is that we are positive and sure only while we are dreaming; and when we come to practical plans for the realization of our Utopia we are uncertain and negative. We know what we do not want. We are against the methods of Fascism. We are against the methods of Communism. When we are asked for our own methods our voice drops. And nobody likes us. If we are opposed to Communism, we are called Fascists. If we are against Fascism, we are called Communists. It is time that we took a positive stand. What we need is a League for Democracy, an Association to Control and Modify *Laissez Faire*, a great army of Americans imbued with the spirit of the men of old who believed in seeking the answer in "investigation, reasonability, and knowledge" and once more dedicated to inspiring our people with this idea. Are we to sit idly by and let the imprudent, hasty, Utopia-hungry quack seize the power? Have we surrendered? Do we no longer believe in our job? Have we lost our faith in education?

The tragic rôle in France today, as it was in 1793, is that played by the liberal, serving his fellow men, who thinks more of the promised land than of the forty years en route, and then awakens to a full realization of his net contribution as he stands before the firing squad or beneath the guillotine.

What we need is not attention to the left or right, but education for the middle of the road. When we lose sight of this we are lost. Now is the time for all good men and true to come to the aid of our country, not by contests of power, not by violence, but by education for democracy in which lies the only hope for a social advance which will endure.

Current Organization Problems of State Departments of Education

By PAYSON SMITH

THE departments of education of the several states present a greater lack of consistent planning and development than is elsewhere to be found in the entire field of administration.

The study made by M. M. Chambers, *Some Features of State Educational-Administrative Organization*, under the direction of the Committee on Government and Educational Organization of the American Council on Education presents an adequate picture of the present state departments of education. It describes their organization and analyzes their functions. The study reveals that the states have evidently been little disposed to follow the example or lead of other states in the pattern of a state organization. Each state has evolved a department suited to its own traditions and conceptions.

There are indications in this report, and even more in current discussions, of a disposition to define more clearly the functions of state offices of education. There is especially a tendency in practically all the states to make larger use of state departments in the direction and supervision of schools.

One important reason for this tendency to enlarge administration through the state probably lies in the increased proportion of state financial support of education. There are hardly any states that have not noticeably enlarged their state expenditures for education. Whenever such extensions come, greater state control is likely to follow since legislatures are reluctant to have greater costs assessed directly on the state without providing means of checking expenditures and determining whether the funds are being spent for the purposes prescribed.

Other things contribute to this increasing participation of state departments in the administration of schools. Certain

activities such as those that relate to the education and certification of teachers are being seen in their state rather than in their local significance. Some of the newer and more specialized kinds of education, such as the education of handicapped children and vocational education, have been found difficult if not impossible to administer exclusively on a local basis.

Again, there have been established in the states various state institutions dealing with education. Legislatures seem to incline to the view that these institutions can be more efficiently and economically administered if the management of them is centralized under a single authority. Steps in this direction, whether actually taken or merely discussed, tend to focus attention on the need of general reorganization.

State administration of education is likewise being affected by the recent so-called reforms that are leading in some states to the application of the "cabinet" idea in the organization of executive departments.

With a somewhat rapidly growing movement towards greater state participation in the administration and support of education it is desirable that study be given to the competence of state departments to accept the new responsibilities that are coming to them and to discharge satisfactorily a range of duties that were hitherto not theirs.

It is obvious that legislatures must not neglect the steps that need to be taken to provide properly organized, well-balanced, and adequately checked departments if injury is not to be done to the schools.

In most states the legislatures are entirely competent, within constitutional bounds at least, to say whether the schools are to be administered by agencies of state government or by those of local government. Broadly speaking, almost any legislature could, without constitutional interference, transfer all powers of administration to state agencies on the one hand, or to local agencies on the other. In some states nothing but the desire of the people—an important exception—prevents the complete abolition of the powers either of the state agency

or the local one. In this matter it is for the legislature of a state to decide whether it will use one or another of several available tools for making the will of the people effective in education.

However, in this connection there should be mention of the constitutional provisions of many states prescribing the election of state officers by popular vote. These provisions do not usually prevent the states from endowing the state departments with new powers and authority. The existence of the necessity of choosing state officers by popular election does, however, undoubtedly have a powerful influence in determining legislative decisions involving increase of powers. Legislatures have often appeared to be reluctant to extend the control of state departments because of their partisan political significance.

One of the most important obstacles to reform lies in this constitutional requirement of election. Some of the states may be forced to make changes at this point if they are to have state departments professionally equipped for a discharge of their functions.

Whatever the obstacles, it is of utmost importance that attention be paid to the better organization of state departments of education and to equipping them in such ways as will insure their capacity for service.

Since the signs point to a yielding of some measure of local control, to the expansion of state educational activities, and to various adjustments of functions among all state executive departments it would seem that the time is opportune to discover what can be done to modernize the machinery of state administration.

It is not difficult to agree on certain general characteristics that should be present in any state department of education. Among them would probably be (1) freedom from partisan political control, (2) representation of lay citizenship informed about public education and interested in it, (3) professional competence of personnel, (4) reasonably clear statutory definitions of powers and duties in relations with local

school authorities, (5) suitable allocation of authority in educational activities exclusively of the state.

It is interesting to note that in spite of a considerable amount of governmental reorganization that has been going forward in the past few decades, and in spite of the long discussion as to the best types of school organization, there have been few alterations in the forms of state departments of education. Indeed, there has been greater advance, probably, towards more satisfactory local administration of schools than state administration.

For example, in the method of the selection of state officers of education by competent boards—the method now generally accepted in the case of local executives and the method theoretically approved as sound in state administration—has in thirty years been extended in practice from three states to only ten states; while the use of popular election for the purpose of selection has, in the same period, increased from twenty-nine to thirty-three states. Appointment by governor was the approved plan in eight states in 1890 and in seven states in 1930.

The element of security or tenure has gained more rapid recognition than good methods of appointment have secured. In 1890 twenty-seven state officers were elected or appointed for terms of three years or less. In 1930 only sixteen were thus serving. In 1890 only one state officer had indefinite tenure, while in 1930 six were given this added protection.

On neither of these points, that of election or that of tenure, however, is the position of state officers of education such as to enhance the efficiency of the departments they administer. So long as these conditions prevail, it will be difficult to construct thoroughly efficient state departments of education.

In connection with studies of this issue as affecting education, it is inevitable that attention will be paid to the matter in relation to proposed general movements, particularly that in the direction of the adoption of the "cabinet" system. Several states have already adopted this plan. Others have it

under consideration. It has powerful support and appears to be winning favor. The application of the plan is likely to be extremely significant in its effect on education.

The alleged advantages of the plan are that it brings all the activities of a state in all its departments and institutions under the direction of the governor so that he can be held accountable for their work and results, much as a general manager is responsible for the conduct of a business enterprise. It also assumes that under it, budgetary responsibility can be fixed and the expenditure of public money better controlled.

While it is not within the scope of this paper to discuss the desirability of the cabinet plan as a whole, it may be said in passing that there is certainly room for a difference of opinion about the efficacy of it.

Governors are elected for somewhat limited terms. They are usually chosen on the basis of some current issue, which may have no bearing on the conduct of departments. It is quite likely, in these circumstances, that a governor will be little informed on the innumerable activities of a modern state, especially those that require technical knowledge such as is needed, for example, in dealing with problems of health, conservation, public works, correction, welfare, and education. In many of these activities only disaster can follow the fluctuating policies of a series of executives often themselves moved by partisan and political influences.

With this plan which aims to make the chief executive of the state, in effect, the responsible manager of all its departments and institutions, there seems to develop in the state service a sense of accountability to the executive rather than to the public. For example, in one of the states, the head of a department recently explained that he had added persons to the pay roll where services were not needed because the governor was the "supreme executive" of the state and for that reason his wishes should be followed. In such an explanation there is a complete denial both of the interest of the public, which must meet the added expense, and of the depart-

ment's service which most certainly must have been to some extent injured by the act. The instance is not isolated nor does it represent the experience of a single state.

This abdication of responsibility to the public when it occurs in a department of education has serious implications not only to management but to educational outcomes.

When the powers of the executive are so expanded that he comes to believe that he is justified in instructing the head of a state educational institution as to whom he is or is not to employ, or can ask such a head to agree to fill teaching positions only by appointment of residents of the state, it ought to be clear to the people that both the usefulness of the department and the interests of the schools are imperiled. Unfortunately, however, as the plan goes into operation the dangers of such situations are not clear to the people. On the contrary, they are quite likely to agree with the executive that since he is the "general manager" his views should be adopted. Unless safeguards against the abuse of power can be developed, the cabinet theory will in practice prove a disappointment and a deterrent to good government. However practicable this theory of full executive responsibility may be in some fields, there are serious implications in the application of it to the administration of education. The agency of the gubernatorial office has proven generally to be a satisfactory one for the selection of members of boards. It has been less happy in its results when its authority has been made to extend into the subsequent control and direction of appointees.

In education there has been a deep seated opposition of the people to the identification of the administration of education with other departments of government. In most states the laws distinctly provide for separate school management and control. The theory thus accepted for local control is equally applicable in the realm of state government.

When the reorganization of the state government of New York was recently effected, an exception was made of the department of education. Its organization continued as before. In certain other states the exception was not made.

The states that have not yet adopted the cabinet plan but propose to do so can profitably note the results in comparable cases.

In the general movement towards consolidation it is probable that whether or not it goes so far as to include education as an integral part of a cabinet system, it will at least extend to the inclusion of state educational activities in the department. Consolidation of this kind has already taken place to some degree and there is an increasing tendency to bring all institutions of a state character under the same general control. But consolidation, even of this type, is to be made with extreme care if institutional integrity is to be protected on the one hand, and on the other, the interests of the public are to be served.

The disposition of institutions to enlarge and in doing so to duplicate the work of other institutions is well recognized. The feeling is that without some responsible force of coordination the separate management of the various institutions will result either in unnecessary extensions or in duplications of service. Plenty of instances can be cited that tend to show that the proponents of centralized control of state institutions have a good case. Their views are likely to prevail. There remains, however, the question as to how a state department of education is to be organized so that this centralized management can be accomplished without the sacrifice of institutional autonomy and responsibility.

It would not appear that there has yet been presented a plan which meets satisfactorily the requirements. A central board with full management of all institutions in states having a considerable number and variety of state schools is likely to imply a loss of efficiency due to the overloading of a single board with too numerous functions. It is probable that out of discussion and experiment will evolve some type of state department that will have an overhead board whose responsibility will be that of passing upon proposals that affect relationships among institutions leaving to separate boards, still

within the department, the duty of directing the routine activities of the several schools.

Associated with this matter of institutional control is the increasingly important question as to what the control functions of state departments are to be in relation to local schools.

The demand for this larger state control appears to be growing. It is the opinion of the writer that state control will not insure the benefits to education that those who advocate it predict. It is still quite possible to believe that state departments of education are most genuinely influential where their activity is one of counsel and advice rather than one of authority. However, due to reasons some of which are already given, the trend, as said, is unmistakably present.

When the older state departments were established three specific tasks were generally assigned them, and to those tasks they were limited. One of these was to gather statistics, another was to interpret and publish statistics, a third was to stimulate a public interest in education. The principle of control of local education by an agency of the state was recognized to a very slight degree.

The earlier conception of the functions of a state department has been modified in all states, while in some of them the balance of control appears to be rapidly swinging to the side of the state.

Here again is reason for prompt and careful study of the ways in which state departments of education can be best organized to meet the demand for central control without too great sacrifice of the undoubted advantages of local autonomy. In such a study and in any proposed reorganization it is of importance that relations of state and local departments in this particular method of control be prescribed as specifically as possible by statute. While departments may safely be given authority to fix and change minor regulations concerning matters wholly of departmental concern, there should be little left to official decision in determining finally the important and often somewhat delicate questions of government as affecting local education. In this field as in that of institutional

management the more a state board keeps within the range of policy, and determination and the less it has to do with explicit direction of local education, the better it is likely to be for the interests of the local schools and for the ultimate influence of the department.

A recent development in the administration of various activities of government is already affecting education, and seems likely to affect it more deeply in the future. This development grows out of the increasing tendency of the local government to look beyond that of the state and to the federal government for the support of activities hitherto largely restricted to local support and administration. This tendency already present before the depression was enormously accelerated during that period.

Out of it have come somewhat anomalous conditions in administration. In such matters as relief, education, public building construction, and unemployment, the responsibility had been so much centered in the local communities that in many, if not most states, there were only small and ill-equipped state departments to deal with them. Since the matters had been regarded as of local concern there had evidently been no occasion to construct strong and efficient state agencies. It happened, therefore, that new channels were set up more to connect the local with the federal government than with the state. In numerous instances the existing state departments became nothing more than the means of transmitting requests for help from the local to the federal unit and, in turn, the funds from the federal to the local treasury. In some cases temporary state boards were set up to perform even this limited service because no others were in existence. In some other instances, moreover, the communications became quite direct between the federal and the local governments.

The significance of these developments relates to the development of future outcomes as the powers and duties of the three branches of government are more clearly defined. As to education, it should not be overlooked that for many years the various departments at Washington have been at-

tracting into their technical service men and women of superior training and experience. The states for the most part have neglected to afford either opportunity or protection for service in technical fields.

Various influences, of which financial aid may be the most compelling, are likely to subordinate agencies of state government in their influence and in the respect in which they may be held. This changing relationship of the state and local governments to the federal government may affect other services more directly and more profoundly than education. It is hardly likely, however, that education will not be increasingly involved.

It becomes essential, therefore, that studies of state educational organization must contemplate not only those situations that arise within the departments themselves, and those that affect state and local connections, but they must also provide for suitable contact relations with the federal government.

No attempt has been here made even to catalog the things which make urgent an approach to the problems involved in the setting up of good state departments of education.

The items herein named, themselves inadequately discussed, are suggestive only of the important phase of school administration which finds and gives proper place to the agency of the state. It is a phase that may be likely to escape notice but it is one the neglect of which may be costly to the interests of the schools.

Endowment Income and Investments, 1926-35*

By A. ROBERT SEASS

WHAT has happened to endowment income during the last ten years, and how have institutions invested their endowment funds during that time? These are two questions which have often been asked us by college and university business managers, educators, and other interested parties.

There are two approaches to the first question. First, we are interested in ascertaining what has happened to the dollar income from the endowment of higher education in the United States—an endowment which approximated a billion and a half dollars in 1934.¹ The second is to ascertain, for purposes of comparison, the average rate of income earned by institutions, grouped according to the size of their endowment funds. In other words, how have the institutions with large endowments fared as compared with those having small endowments?

There are also two approaches to the question, "How have institutions invested their endowment funds?" The first has to do with investment management and diversification of investment portfolios. These are internal factors within the control of an institution which affect the rate of income earned on endowment funds. The second has to do with the external factors affecting income, which are chiefly economic and political.

Because there are so many ways of reporting endowment income and the principal of endowment funds, there are no

* This study was begun and carried to partial completion under the direction of George E. Van Dyke, former technical associate of the Financial Advisory Service.

¹ United States Office of Education unpublished biennial report for 1933-34, reports \$1,539,727,565 on June 30, 1934.

really comparable statistics on endowment income available. A similar situation exists with regard to the distribution of investment portfolios. The only ways to get such information from the source were to visit the institutions or work from their published reports. The first was out of the question because of cost and time required. It was, therefore, necessary to work from published reports and correspondence with institutions. A thorough search was made for a library or office containing the reports for ten years of an appreciable number of colleges and universities but none was found. As a result, it was necessary to write directly to the institutions requesting sets of their last ten financial reports. Seventy-two replies were received from the 152 institutions to which requests were sent. Of the 72 institutions heard from, 31, or 43 per cent, did not have the information as to endowment income and distribution of investments available in their published reports for ten years. This lack of available information probably explains in large part why the remaining 80 institutions did not reply.

Dollar income. In an effort to find out what has happened to the dollar income from the endowment of higher education, the 45 institutions listed below were studied.

Alfred University	Harvard University
Baldwin-Wallace College	Haverford College
Bethany College, Kansas	Knox College
Bowdoin College	Lafayette College
Brown University	Lawrence College
Bryn Mawr College	Lebanon Valley College
Carnegie Institute of Technology	Lehigh University
Carroll College	University of Louisville
Catholic University	Massachusetts Institute of Technology
Columbia University	Mount Holyoke College
Converse College	New York University
Dartmouth College	Northwestern University
Davidson College	Oberlin College
Dickinson College	University of Pennsylvania
Franklin and Marshall College	University of Pittsburgh
Hamilton College	Radcliffe College
Hampton Institute	University of the South

University of Southern California	Wellesley College
Stanford University	William Jewell College
Tufts College	Williams College
University of Tulsa	Wofford College
Union Theological Seminary	Yale University
Vanderbilt University	

Their number may seem small when we consider that there were 533 privately endowed institutions in this country in 1931-32, but these 45 institutions hold approximately 40 per cent of all endowment funds of privately controlled colleges and universities. That they may be better than the average is a possible criticism of the sampling, although not necessarily a valid one. Because these institutions have kept adequate records and published their financial reports, it does not follow that they have been unusually successful in their efforts to secure good investments.

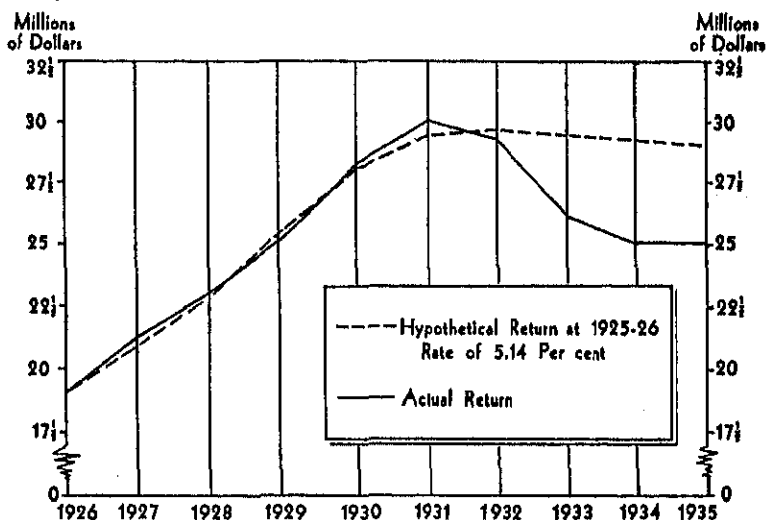
The income figures which are used throughout the discussions which follow are, as far as it was possible to determine, gross income before deducting expenses incident to making and managing investments, which is the accepted way of reporting endowment income.

The unbroken line in Chart I gives the trend of dollar income from the endowment funds of these 45 colleges and universities for the ten-year period 1925-26 through 1934-35. Starting at a little over 19 million dollars in 1925-26, the income increased rather regularly until it reached slightly over 30 million dollars in 1930-31. This was the greatest amount of income received in any of the ten years, and is somewhat surprising, coming a full year after the crash of the security market in the fall of 1929. The income for these 45 institutions fell about a million dollars in 1931-32, about three million more in 1932-33, and then in 1933-34 about a million and a quarter more to the depression low of 25 million dollars. The income for 1934-35 was approximately the same.

An interesting comparison to make in this connection is that of actual dollar income received in each year with that which

would have been received had the 1925-26 rate been earned. The broken line in Chart I represents this hypothetical income. It also shows what changes in the principal of the endowment funds have taken place, since a constant rate of return (the 1925-26 rate) is used throughout. Thus, from the same line, we can compare the increase or decrease of the principal of endowment funds with the increase or decrease of dollar income as shown by the solid line. In 1925-26 the principal was approximately 373 millions (\$373,247,000) and in 1934-35 it was a little under 567 millions (\$566,863,000).

CHART I. ACTUAL DOLLAR INCOME FROM ENDOWMENTS OF 45 INSTITUTIONS, 1926-35, AND HYPOTHETICAL DOLLAR INCOME BASED ON 1925-26 RATE OF RETURN



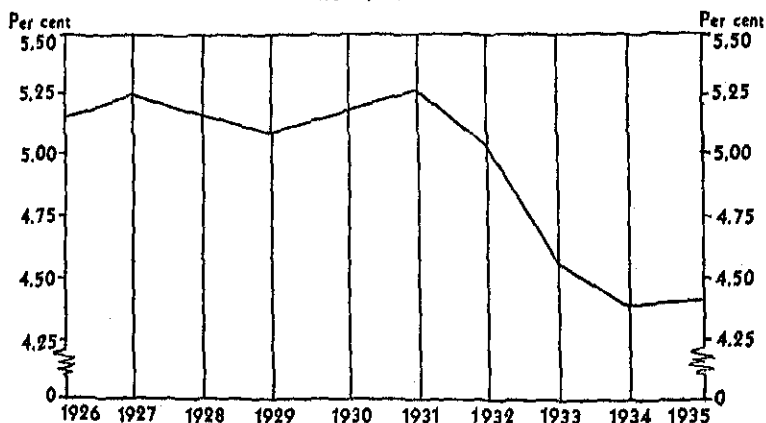
This is an increase in ten years of 52 per cent. The dollar income therefrom, on the other hand, was only 30.5 per cent greater in 1934-35 than in 1925-26. Naturally, the difference in the percentage of increase of endowment funds and of income therefrom is due to the fluctuation of the rate of return earned by these colleges and universities on their endowment funds.

Chart II shows the rate of return earned on funds held by this group of institutions for the ten-year period. The highest rate, 5.27 per cent, was earned in 1930-31, the year that the

dollar income was the greatest. Thereafter the rate fell sharply until it reached a low of 4.39 per cent in 1933-34, in which year the dollar income was also lowest. The rate of return rose slightly in 1934-35 to 4.42 per cent.

If Chart I is again examined, it will be noted that both the dollar income from and the principal of endowment funds rose at a fairly constant rate, as indicated by the nearly straight lines, until 1930-31. After 1931 the principal or amount of funds has varied little, reaching an all-time high in 1931-32 and declining slightly each of the three years thereafter. The income from these same endowment funds fol-

CHART II. RATE OF RETURN EARNED ON TOTAL ENDOWMENT FUNDS OF 45 INSTITUTIONS, 1926-35



lowed an entirely different course, however, reaching its peak in 1930-31 and dropping rather sharply thereafter to the low point of 1933-34. Only a negligible increase occurred in 1935. As pointed out before, the income in 1934-35 was 25 million dollars. On the other hand, had it been possible to earn the rate earned in 1925-26, which was fairly representative of the return for the first seven years of this period, the income would have been 16.3 per cent greater, or a little over 29 million dollars. That makes the loss roughly 4 million dollars on the endowment funds of the 45 colleges and universities which we have sampled. This means that, if the institutions included in this study can be taken as a measure, the loss to

higher education in the United States was approximately 11 million dollars in 1934-35.

More important than what happened in 1934-35 is the fact that published reports coming to the office of the Financial Advisory Service for 1935-36 show no material improvement in endowment income for the year just ended. Moreover, as every investor of endowment funds knows, the prospect for improvement in 1936-37 is not bright. The best forecasts for 1937 indicate that the rates of return which may be secured on first-class investments will remain low.

Institutions grouped according to size of endowments. The second approach made to the question of what has happened to endowment income was to compare the average rates of income earned by groups of institutions, classed according to the size of their endowment funds. There are three groups in this part of the study: those having over \$15,000,000 endowment, those having between \$2,000,000 and \$15,000,000, and those having less than \$2,000,000.

The rate of income here differs from the rate of income used in connection with the discussion of dollar income. The latter was the rate of income earned on the lump sum of the funds invested by all 45 institutions considered as a unit, while each rate which we shall discuss in this part of the study is an average of the rates of income earned by individual institutions. By this procedure, each institution is weighted equally in the computation of the average, no weight being given to the size of the respective endowments.

In this part of the study are included only those 39 institutions for which a complete distribution of the investment portfolios for the ten-year period has been made, because later the relationship of the investment portfolios to the income earned by the various groups of institutions will be discussed. Figures of \$2,000,000 and \$15,000,000 were chosen as the dividing lines between the three groups because of the natural division into which the institutions fell.

Table I shows that approximately half of the institutions in the group with endowments over \$15,000,000 have been

sampled, around 18 per cent of the group with endowments between \$2,000,000 and \$15,000,000, and only 4 per cent of the group with endowments under \$2,000,000. It is recognized that this is a small sampling, especially of the large number of institutions with endowments under \$2,000,000. It is felt, however, that this should not detract appreciably from the value of the material. Naturally, it cannot be said that the average rates which have been arrived at will exactly hold for the institutions of the country as a whole, nor that minor fluctuations

TABLE I.—CLASSIFICATION OF INSTITUTIONS INCLUDED IN THIS STUDY, AND OF PRIVATELY CONTROLLED ENDOWED INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES, 1931-32, ACCORDING TO SIZE OF ENDOWMENT FUNDS

Endowment	Institutions		
	In the United States (A)	Included in This Study (B)	Percentage of (B) to (A)
^{#1} Over \$15,000,000.....	17	8	47
\$2,000,000-\$15,000,000.....	73	13	18
Under \$2,000,000.....	443	18	4
Total.....	533 ^a	39	

^a "Statistics of Higher Education, 1931-32," *U. S. Office of Education Bulletin 1933, No. 2*. (Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1935), pp. 324-44.

tuations from year to year would be reliable for such purpose. But neither of these is the thing which is probably most significant. The major fluctuations of the rates earned during prosperity and depression years are of primary interest.

Importance of stable rate of return. From the very definition of the term endowment funds—funds the principal of which shall be maintained inviolate, the income of which alone may be used—can be pointed out the primary responsibilities of those who are entrusted with the investment of endowment funds. First, the funds should be so invested that the principal will be preserved and, second, they should be so invested that a stable rate of income will be secured. Since principal must be maintained inviolate, a stable income year after year

for any program depending on endowment for support can be attained only by earning a relatively constant rate of return on those endowment funds.

The major fluctuations in rates found for the various groups studied are believed to be fairly representative. There are in the files of the Financial Advisory Service financial reports for one or more years of some 150 privately controlled institutions, and a review of those has shown that the general findings are representative although the sampling is relatively small. An intensive study has been made of the few institutions for which reliable data were on hand and it is offered as such.

The institutions which make up the three groups which appear in the charts, tables, and discussions which follow are listed below.

Institutions with endowment under \$2,000,000:

Alfred University	Knox College
Baldwin-Wallace College	Lawrence College
Bethany College, Kansas	Lebanon Valley College
Carroll College	University of the South
University of Chattanooga	University of Southern California
Converse College	University of Tulsa
Davidson College	William Jewell College
Dickinson College	Wofford College
Franklin and Marshall College	Yankton College

Institutions with endowment from \$2,000,000 to \$15,000,000:

Berea College	Mount Holyoke College
Bowdoin College	New York University
Brown University	University of Pittsburgh
Catholic University of America	Smith College
Colgate University	Union Theological Seminary
Hamilton College	Wellesley College
Lafayette College	

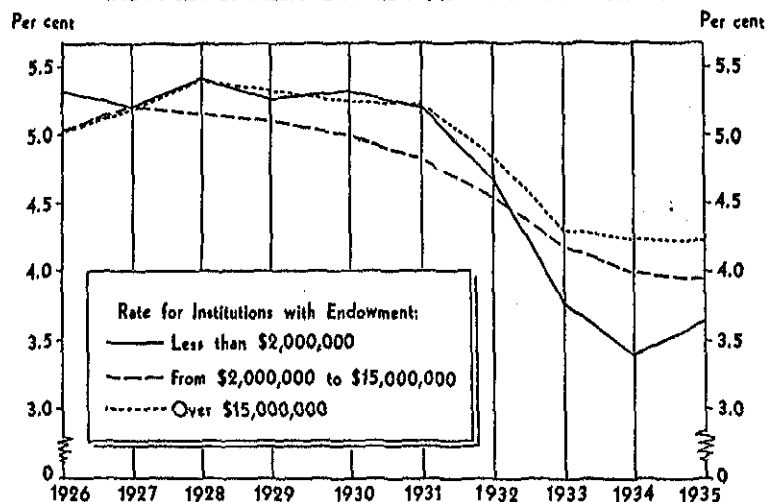
Institutions with endowment over \$15,000,000:

Carnegie Institute of Technology	Massachusetts Institute of Technology
University of Chicago	Oberlin College
Dartmouth College	Stanford University
Harvard University	Vanderbilt University

Hereafter for convenience the group of institutions with endowment over \$15,000,000 will be designated as the "large group," the group with endowment from \$2,000,000 to \$15,000,000 as the "middle group," and the group with endowment under \$2,000,000 as the "small group."

Rates of income. Chart III shows the average rate of income earned by each of the three groups of institutions for the ten years 1925-26 through 1934-35. It shows that from 1927-28 through 1930-31 both the large group and the small group

CHART III. AVERAGE RATES OF INCOME EARNED BY INSTITUTIONS GROUPED ACCORDING TO SIZE OF THEIR ENDOWMENTS, 1925-26 THROUGH 1934-35



earned rates of income which ranged from 5.2 per cent to 5.4 per cent and which were 0.2 to 0.4 of a point above the rate earned by the middle group. The rate of income earned by the large group then dropped during 1931-32 and 1932-33 to around 4.25 per cent, which level was maintained during 1933-34 and 1934-35. This was approximately a whole point lower than the level before 1930-31. It still remained, however, above the rates earned by the middle group. The rate of income earned by the small group, on the other hand, which had been (along with that of the large group) between 5.2

per cent and 5.4 per cent before the depression was felt in 1931-32, dropped during 1931-32, 1932-33, and 1933-34, reaching a low of 3.4 per cent in the last year. That was approximately 2 points below the old level, or a decrease of 36 per cent. This was almost twice the decline of 20 per cent experienced by the large group. It was noted above that the large group maintained its superiority over the middle group during the bottom depression years 1932-33 through 1934-35; not so with the small group, its average rate of income being around a half point below that of the middle group.

A glance at Chart III may leave the impression that the middle group has earned the most stable yield from their investments. A closer study will disclose that the large group and the middle group are about equal in this respect. The two groups earned about the same rate in 1925-26 and 1926-27, then in 1927-28 the large group earned a quarter of a per cent more than the middle group and has maintained at least that advantage in every year since, with the exception of 1932-33, when the rates were only a tenth of a per cent apart.

TABLE II.—RATES OF INCOME EARNED BY INSTITUTIONS WITH ENDOWMENT UNDER \$2,000,000

Rate	Number of Institutions									
	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Over 6 per cent.....	5	3	3	4	4	2	2	1
5½ to 6 per cent.....	3	3	5	2	4	2	2	..	2	..
5 to 5½ per cent.....	5	2	5	5	5	7	1	1	..	2
4½ to 5 per cent.....	2	8	3	3	2	4	5	2	1	..
4 to 4½ per cent.....	1	1	1	3	2	2	3	5	1	5
3½ to 4 per cent.....	1	..	1	1	1	1	4	4	4	3
3 to 3½ per cent.....	..	1	1	3	1	4
2½ to 3 per cent.....	1	2	5	3
2 to 2½ per cent.....	3	..
1½ to 2 per cent.....	1
1 to 1½ per cent.....	1	..
Total.....	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18
Average rate for year.....	5.29	5.19	5.39	5.27	5.32	5.21	4.65	3.76	3.40	3.63

Thus, judging by the fluctuation in rates of income earned by the three groups, we find that the small group has fared

TABLE III.—RATES OF INCOME EARNED BY INSTITUTIONS WITH ENDOWMENT FROM \$2,000,000 to \$15,000,000

Rate	Number of Institutions									
	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Over 6 per cent.
5½ to 6 per cent.	2	2	1	1
5 to 5½ per cent.	5	7	8	7	6	6	2
4½ to 5 per cent.	2	3	4	4	6	5	5	3
4 to 4½ per cent.	2	1	1	1	5	6	7	6
3½ to 4 per cent.	1	1	1	4	5
3 to 3½ per cent.	2	1	2
2½ to 3 per cent.	1	..
2 to 2½ per cent.
1½ to 2 per cent.
1 to 1½ per cent.
Total.	11	12	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13
Average rate for year.	5.03	5.20	5.15	5.10	4.99	4.81	4.55	4.19	3.98	3.95

TABLE IV.—RATES OF INCOME EARNED BY INSTITUTIONS WITH ENDOWMENT OVER \$15,000,000

Rate	Number of Institutions									
	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Over 6 per cent.	1	1	1
5½ to 6 per cent.	1	2	1	2
5 to 5½ per cent.	3	6	5	3	4	4	4	1	1	1
4½ to 5 per cent.	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	2	2
4 to 4½ per cent.	1	1	1	..	2	4	2	1
3½ to 4 per cent.	2	2	4
3 to 3½ per cent.	1	..
2½ to 3 per cent.
2 to 2½ per cent.
1½ to 2 per cent.
1 to 1½ per cent.
Total.	6	7	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
Average rate for year.	5.02	5.16	5.39	5.32	5.24	5.22	4.83	4.30	4.24	4.24

worse than the two larger groups, which have been affected very much alike by the depression, the small group suffering a fluctuation of 36 per cent while the two larger groups experienced a fluctuation of 20 per cent.

Tables II, III, and IV, showing the frequency distribution of rates earned by these institutions, are probably more enlightening as to the difference in the severity of the depression on the endowment funds of these groups. It will be noted that the institutions of the middle group in Table III are bunched more closely together than the institutions with small endowments in Table II. This seems to indicate that their management is of a more even quality as a group. Table II also shows the fact pointed out above—that the institutions with small endowments earned considerably higher rates of income during the prosperity period and considerably lower rates during the depression than did the middle-sized group. Another interesting point brought out by Table II in connection with the effect of the depression on the small group is that in 1933-34 the rate of income earned by half of the institutions was a half point or more lower than the average as shown in Chart III. Table II shows that nine, or half, of the small institutions earned less than a 3 per cent return on their investments of endowment funds in 1933-34, while the average rate earned by the group was about 3.5 per cent.

Investment portfolios. The rates of income earned by the three groups are undoubtedly affected by some factors that are within the control of the institutions and some that are not. The factor within the control of the institutions which has been studied is that of diversification of investment portfolios. Charts IV, V, and VI are graphic presentations of the average investment portfolios of the three groups over the ten-year period. The charts also show for each group the average rate of income earned in each year. Thus, a direct comparison is possible in any year between the rate of income earned and the make-up of the investment portfolio.

It was noted before that the fluctuation between the high rates earned during the last years of the twenties and the

The following table summarizes the approximate percentage distribution of investments for the Income Fund across the years 1926 to 1935, based on the visual data from the charts.

Year	Real Estate and Mortgages	Bonds	Stocks	Institutional Plant, Loans to Other Funds, and Other Investments
1926	15%	60%	25%	0%
1927	15%	60%	20%	5%
1928	20%	62%	15%	5%
1929	18%	63%	15%	5%
1930	15%	63%	15%	5%
1931	15%	62%	15%	5%
1932	20%	58%	15%	5%
1933	18%	58%	15%	5%
1934	18%	58%	15%	5%
1935	18%	58%	15%	5%

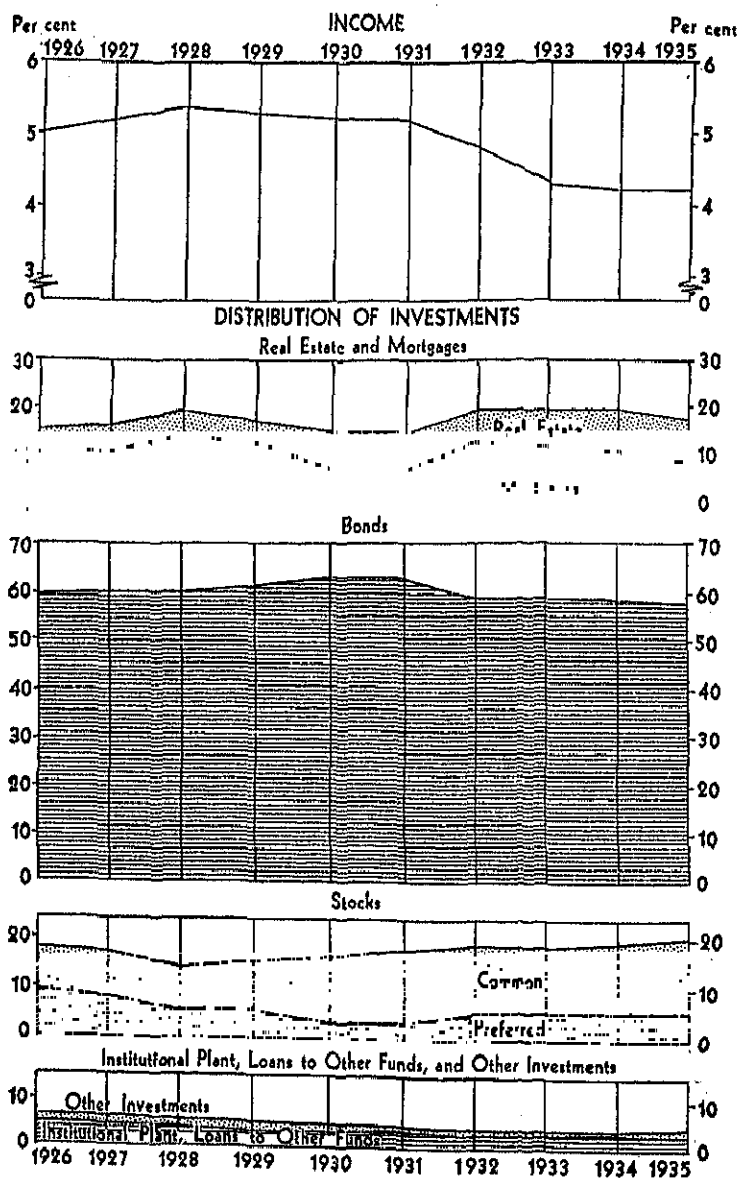


CHART V. RATE OF INCOME AND DISTRIBUTION OF INVESTMENTS FOR INSTITUTIONS WITH ENDOWMENT FROM \$2,000,000 TO \$15,000,000, 1926-35

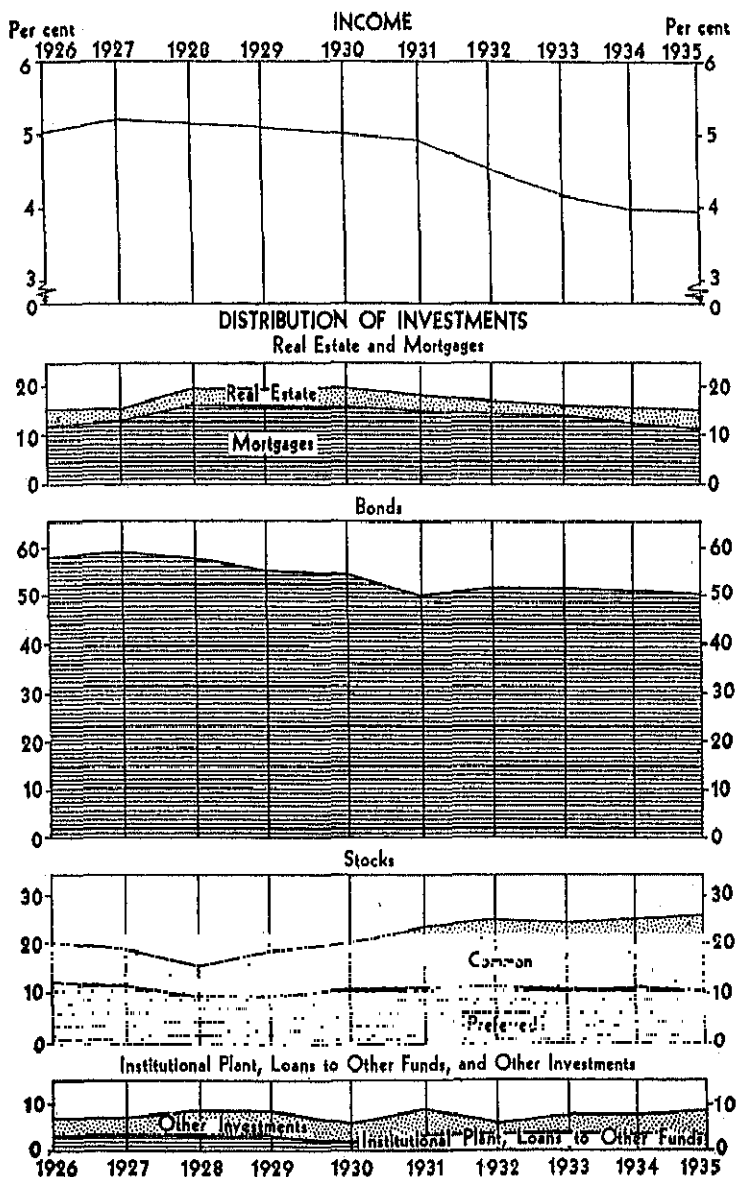
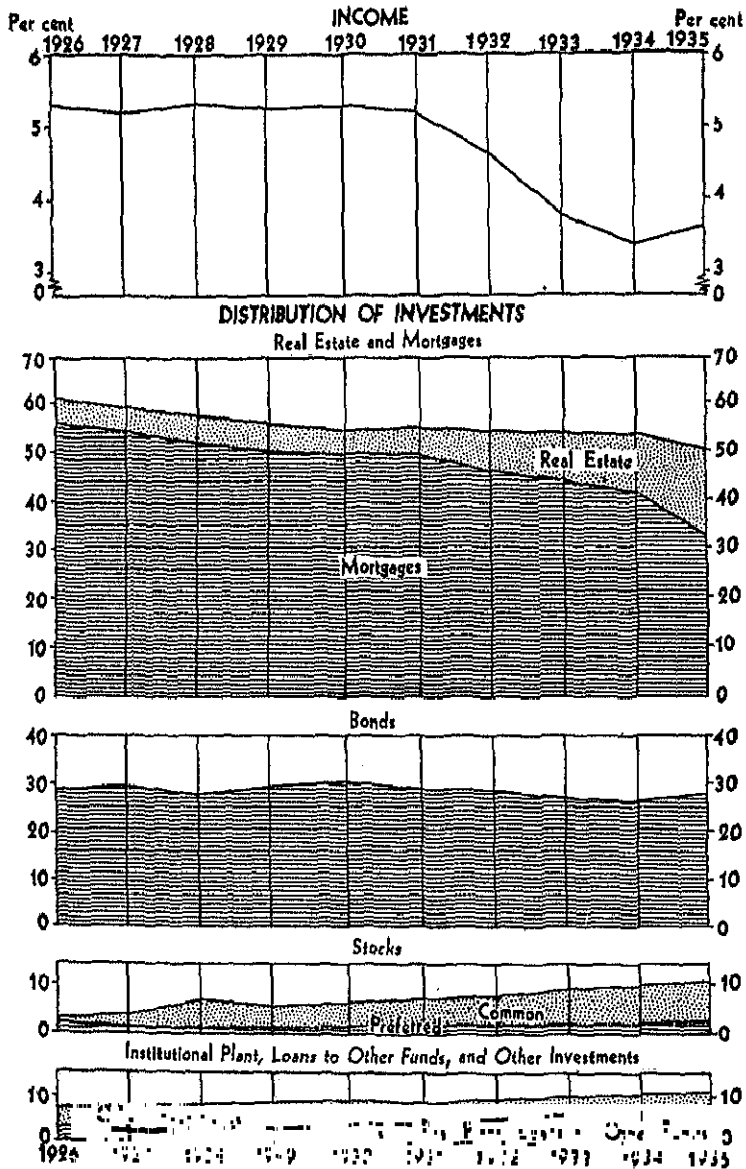


CHART VI. RATE OF INCOME AND DISTRIBUTION OF INVESTMENTS FOR INSTITUTIONS WITH ENDOWMENT UNDER \$2,000,000, 1926-35



lower rates earned during the depression years of the thirties was about the same for the two larger groups. If the investment portfolios of the two are compared, it will be seen that they are very similar in their make-up, probably explaining in part the similarity in the fluctuation of their rates of income.

Real estate and mortgages together have made up about the same percentage of both portfolios—from 15 per cent to 20 per cent over the ten-year period. The large group, however, has held about twice as much real estate as the middle group. Bonds have been the predominant type of investment with both, the large group starting and ending the ten-year period with about 60 per cent of its investments in bonds, and the middle group starting with about the same percentage and in 1934-35 holding just 50 per cent of their funds in bonds.

The stock holdings of the large group were 18 per cent of the total portfolio in 1925-26, reached a low of 14 per cent in 1927-28, and were 20 per cent in 1934-35. The stock holdings of the middle group were 20 per cent in 1925-26, reached a low of 16 per cent in 1927-28 (the same year as the large group), and were a little over 27 per cent in 1934-35. The 7 per cent difference between the holdings of the two groups was almost entirely made up of preferred stock. The common stock holdings of the large and middle groups in 1934-35 were 15 per cent and 16 per cent respectively.

The large group got into common stocks a little more quickly after the stock market crash of 1929 than did the middle group. In 1929-30 the large group increased its common stock holdings to 13.2 per cent of its portfolio while the middle group held only 9.5 per cent.

The two groups, over the ten-year period, had about 3 and 4 per cent of their funds invested in institutional property or loaned to other funds, usually the current funds, which are used to carry on current operations.

The amount of uninvested cash and miscellaneous investments such as personal notes was about the same for both groups in 1925-26, comprising about 2 or 3 per cent of the

portfolios. It decreased to less than 1 per cent for the large group in 1930-31 and remained about the same in the years thereafter. For the middle group, however, it increased to between 4 and 5 per cent for the years after 1925-26. This may account in part for the difference of 0.2 to 0.4 of a point in the rates of income earned by the two groups after 1926-27.

In reviewing the comparison of the investment portfolios of the large and middle groups, it is found that the large group changed its percentage of holdings of various types of investments very little during the ten years. About the same can be said for the middle group. There was a slight increase in the percentage of real estate held and a corresponding decrease in mortgages. The only marked change, however, was one of about 7 per cent from bonds to common stocks. This is not to say, of course, that there has been little or no change in the distribution of investments as between railroads, public utilities, industrials, and so forth. And it should not be construed to mean that individual issues of bonds or stocks or individual mortgage and real estate holdings have not been changed from time to time; that is not the case.

Inasmuch as the make-up of the investment portfolios of the two larger groups have been found to be so much alike, the only comparison which remains to be made is that between those portfolios taken together and the portfolio of the small group. Real estate and mortgages made up over 60 per cent of all investments for the small group in 1925-26 and over 50 per cent in 1934-35. This is about the same percentage that the larger groups were found to hold in bonds. It is 40 per cent more real estate and mortgages than the larger groups held. The increase in real estate held by the small group from 5 per cent in 1929-30 to 17 per cent in 1934-35 and the corresponding decrease in mortgages held are due almost entirely to the foreclosure of defaulted mortgages.

Bonds made up about 30 per cent of the portfolio of the small group rather regularly during the ten years—about half the percentage held by the larger groups. The stock holdings of the small group were around 3 per cent in 1925-26

and increased steadily until in 1934-35 they approximated 10 per cent of the portfolio. This is only half the percentage held by the group with endowment over \$15,000,000, and only a little over a third of the percentage held by the middle group.

There is a rather marked difference in the percentage of funds invested in plant and loaned to other funds by the small group and the larger groups. The larger groups had invested around 3 and 4 per cent of their funds in this manner, while the small group increased its investment from 3 per cent in 1925-26 to 9 per cent in 1934-35. This type of investment is not, in the opinion of most authorities, a suitable one for endowment funds, and practically all college business officers seem to agree.² Probably, then, the increase which has occurred with the small group has been a forced rather than a voluntary one.

In view of the more severe fluctuation in rate of return experienced by the group with small endowments as compared with the larger groups, a review of the main points of difference between the investment portfolios of the two would seem to be pertinent. The first and greatest difference to be found between the portfolios of the small group and those of the larger groups is that the former is predominated by mortgages and real estate instead of bonds, as are the latter. Probably this largely explains the difference in fluctuations of rates of return. It would seem to be the only explanation for the increase in the rate of return earned by the small group in 1934-35 over the rate earned in 1933-34, while the rate of return for the large group remained where it was and the rate for the middle group continued to decline. Farm mortgages and real estate improved during 1934-35 while bond yields continued to decline.

Another difference in the distribution of investments is in

² For a thorough discussion of the principles underlying a sound financial policy with respect to endowments, the reader is referred to Chapter IV (pp. 24-53) of *College and University Finance* by Trevor Arnett, published by the General Education Board, New York, 1922.

stocks. The small group held only half the amount held by the large group and only a little over a third the amount that the middle-sized group did. The last difference of note is the larger amount of funds invested in plant and loaned to other funds by the small group after the depression had set in.

Other factors affecting rate of income. While the fact that the small institutions had 50 to 60 per cent of their funds in mortgages and real estate may be one of the major reasons for their very good average rate of return before the depression and their rather poor rate of return during the depression, the importance of this factor of distribution of investment portfolio in the securing of a stable rate of return should not be overemphasized. Probably equally important is the type of investment management employed by the institutions, and in the last analysis probably the most important factor is the ability of the person or persons actually doing the investing. The wise handling of investments requires the constant attention of prudent and alert persons. The better types of management provide for the continual review of the investment portfolio in light of present and probable future conditions. Whether the decisions as to the proper make-up of the portfolio and the selection of individual investments are good or bad depends chiefly on the ability of those responsible.

To what extent any or all of these factors of diversification of investment portfolio and of type and quality of investment management affect the success of individual institutions or of institutions as a whole is, of course, impossible to determine exactly. External factors also certainly enter the situation to some extent. It has been found that the funds of colleges and universities are largely invested in bonds and mortgages. They are, therefore, directly affected by conditions of the money market, and most certainly that is affected by economic and political factors. This country is generally conceded to be experiencing a period of economic recovery, if not prosperity, at the present time. Under such conditions and with a free play of economic laws, there would be expected a heavy demand for capital and resulting high interest rates. But the govern-

ment has employed a system of managed economics. A part of its program has been the maintenance of low interest rates, and in this it has thus far been successful.

The comment below, taken from an endowed college's published report for 1936, tells clearly the problem that is therefore facing those who are seeking sound investments for endowment funds.

In each of the past few years it has been necessary for us to call attention to the fact that the current yield of our portfolio as a whole was constantly declining. Again we must report a continuance of the same trend. Fortunately, however, the decrease during the past year is less than during the immediate years preceding. . . . During the past 12 months [ended June 30, 1936] bonds have been constantly called or refunded, and in most cases replaced with a similar bond with a lower yield. It is becoming more and more difficult to secure a yield on the type of securities that we feel should be in our portfolio which is commensurate with what has existed in the past. The continuance of the present dollar income which the college enjoys from its endowment funds must, therefore, at least for the present, be somewhat dependent on increased gifts.^a

Chart II, which shows the rate of return earned on approximately 40 per cent of the endowment of United States education for the ten years 1925-26 through 1934-35, bears out the remarks quoted above through 1934-35. As has been said in connection with the discussion of Chart II, a new level of rate of return was established during the last three years of the period studied which was 0.50 to 0.75 of a point below the rates earned during the previous seven years, and in the light of the present conditions of the security market this is the level which can be expected to continue at least for the near future.

Thus the conclusion of the college quoted above that any increase in income from endowments must be the result of a material increase in the principal of endowment funds through increased gifts (and bequests) appears to be well founded.

^a Bowdoin College, *Financial Reports for the Year Ended June 30, 1936*.

As pointed out before, gifts and bequests increasing endowment were rather regular during the prosperity period under review. They have fallen off sharply during the depression. Gifts creating new endowments have not been great enough to offset the decline in endowments resulting from losses incurred through sales of securities, mortgage foreclosures, and the like. Some have wondered if a part of this marked decline in gifts is not due to new tax laws as well as to the depression. It would seem that only indirectly as taxes affect the accumulation of wealth is this true. Several studies,⁴ such as those by Walter Dill Scott, president of Northwestern University, and Thomas E. Blackwell, comptroller of Washington University, point out that under the new tax laws gifts can be made at less cost to the donors than ever before. It seems, therefore, that the decline of gifts has been due practically entirely to the depression and that they should probably once again increase with a return of prosperity.

⁴Walter Dill Scott, *The Power of Wealth*, Northwestern University, 1936.

Thomas E. Blackwell, "Gifts and Bequests for Education," in the *Educational Business Manager and Buyer*, XVII (February 1936), 7-9, 27.

A Prophet in His Own Country

By C. R. MANN

ALREADY preparations are under way for a Fair of the Future in New York in 1939. This Fair will commemorate the one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the inauguration of George Washington as the first President of the United States. Since his inauguration was the beginning of a new democratic experiment under which we have prospered for one hundred and fifty years and which seems likely to be a chart for the future, it is fitting to commemorate this past event by depicting how we propose to realize in practice our aspirations for the future.

No one can foretell the future. But we do know that the nature of our future circumstances will be largely determined by the quality and direction of the growth of people. Recognizing this, society has provided the school as the universal instrumentality to help our children grow into well-matured citizens of the future. The school thus takes rank with the home, the church, and the community as a dynamic factor in any expression of our aspirations for the future. To furnish adequate schooling to our children is a living contribution to our attempt to create a more abundant American life.

To build a universal system of schooling that includes all the children of all the people in a land as vast as ours is a peculiarly American ideal. That this ideal is rapidly becoming a reality is a particular tribute to our democratic way of life. Under no other conditions can we conceive such a goal as possible of achievement. Our democratic practice of keeping the purposes and processes of schooling under control of local communities, where all know the needs, habits, personal and environmental conditions of those immediately concerned, keeps evolving a school service ever more finely attuned to the needs of the children there.

Another feature of our democratic way of life is the free-

dom with which each citizen criticizes and evaluates the school service by the observable results which he sees in his own children. Educators from the smallest community to the greatest metropolitan center periodically come together from all corners of the country in nationally organized meetings. There they freely discuss their experiences, try both to evaluate the success of the entire school service in the light of social results and to reformulate purposes and processes of schooling that seem more likely to get better social results in the future. This constant free circulation of criticism and evaluation from the individual school to the composite school service of the nation and back again is our democratic way of nourishing the school system we maintain to serve individual children in a way that justifies the faith we have in schooling.

In the well-known Northwest Ordinance of 1787, enacted by the Confederation before we, the people, ordained and established the Constitution of the United States, our enduring and vital aspirations for the future are set forth in these words: "Religion, morality and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged." When we find, as we do today, that despite our substantial encouragement of "schools and the means of education" there are many conditions in our daily life that threaten the foundations of good government and the happiness of mankind, we may with justice critically appraise the school service we maintain to help children learn to be good citizens. After any such reliable appraisal we must frankly admit that the school program of today is not as effective a social instrumentality as we hope it may be.

Education is a continuous process from the cradle to the grave. From every experience every person learns something that vitally influences for better or for worse his own growth. It is easy to see, therefore, how the schooling given immature minds in childhood may give a positive or a negative set to their later education. The personal attitude that evolves in each individual child has an enduring influence on his own

education throughout his whole life. Similarly, the integrated sum of these individual attitudes directly affects the evolution of the society of the future. This conception clarifies the eternal challenge to the schools. Their program must help each child learn how to draw wisdom from the past, shape aspirations and goals for the future, and combine these two in wise action today.

The eternal challenge to American schools is even now little understood among all who are vitally concerned. After three centuries of countless efforts to meet this challenge effectively the school program of today still fails to get the desired results. Every educator is struggling for a more understanding philosophy. New techniques are constantly evolving to help each of us on the job.

An outstanding leader in this continuing attack on the age-old challenge was Henry Suzzallo. A native citizen of the United States, he grew up through the public schools of his day. His innate genius helped him distinguish between the strengths and the weaknesses of those schools as he progressively worked his own way through them from pupil to teacher to president of a state university. He understood and served education in a way that is fundamental and timeless. His life of service portrayed an enduring love of the democratic way of life and a fundamental understanding of the school practices that foster the evolution of this democratic way. His thoughts on education and his suggestions as to how to proceed will always give us new stimulus and guidance.

In 1932 he made an address¹ to the assembled school superintendents of America in which is contained the essence of the fruits of his vision and his rich experiences. To those of his fellow countrymen who would carry on the work of making schooling an ever finer instrument for realizing in practice the noblest aspirations of the American people there

¹Published in full in THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD, Vol. XIII (April 1932), 85-98, and in the *Annual Report of the Department of Superintendence for 1932*, pp. 114-22.

is here presented again the essential points of Henry Su-zallo's vision of

A PROGRAM FOR TOMORROW

Change

Our changing times compel us to consider American education carefully as a fundamental instrument of our civilization.

There is no better way to appreciate the unique greatness of American education than to view its past, and perceive its fine responsiveness to the expanding and heightening aspirations of the American folk.

There is no better way to comprehend the inadequacies and the defects of American education than to compare what we have done with the hopes we have held for service to civilization.

Tomorrow's program will be born of today's practice, criticism, and reconstruction as today's was born of yesterday's.

Aspiration

There is one large factor which endures and will continue to endure. It hovers over the whole scene of American life and education. It is the persistent democratic aspiration of Americans to give themselves a more kindly civilization and to train a nation of cooperative men and women to operate it. The corner stone of tomorrow's program is this democratic aspiration.

It must be remembered at the outset that a democracy focuses its attention on a way of going rather than on a fixed destination, and that it knows better the manner of life which it wishes to lead in its social journeyings than it does the end of its journey.

Education

The central item in tomorrow's program of education is the educative process. All other items are secondary, being either supplementary or reinforcing. It must be considered first, and the other items afterward. Until we know how we shall want to change or educate men and women we cannot organize, administer, or supervise, arrange our health program, provide the needed physical facilities, or equip the schools with aids, material or human.

We must make the school's main business that of developing an effective social person rather than a successful individual. The fruits of education must be more largely public than private. We can justify taxing all for the education of all only when the results are more social than personal.

Motivation

The current school too largely gains its successes by using individualistic motivations.

The new social psychology gives us ground to believe that the thrill of doing one's part in a larger task may be made as powerful a motive for work as doing the whole of a small job better than someone else. In the school of the future the altruistic thrill of participation should be used more often than the self-satisfactions of egoistic successes in ranking one in the class, in having better marks, accumulating more credits, more rapid promotions, more honors, more degrees than the other fellow.

The school system should gradually get rid of the whole artificial organization of egoistic motivations which have had a long traditional use amongst us, displacing them one by one as the profession learns how to use stimulations and rewards which are social rather than individual, therefore personally more enduring and satisfying.

Integration

The school must be concerned with the whole personality of little men and women, each and every aspect, and must neglect none.

The school's new approach thus becomes wholly human. The body and the mind, the soul and the intellect are alike its concern, not at separate moments but all at once as coincident aspects of a healthy, normal, integrated personality.

From now on we are concerned to aid children and youth to become wholly human, to develop every aspect of body and mind, intellect and soul, to relate and integrate feeling, knowing and doing, to perceive the values of character, and the efficiencies of action or expression as equally important with the full rational uses of mind.

Curriculum

The school that is to train for life cannot be narrower in resources than the civilization it serves.

It will foster appreciation of the social tools through which individual men become socially cooperative—the institutions in which each and all of us must learn to play an effective part.

Economics and technology will be just as respectable as school studies as they are insistent as social affairs. Educational valuations will tend to coincide with genuine social valuations.

The emphasis here placed on our own American civilization and our own time, broadly conceived, is meant not as an excuse for detailed study of everything, but as a fairly stern standard of selection and omission in curriculum-making which will give no warrant to the retention or inclusion of subject matter which has only a remote connection with the student's genuine and urgent needs.

Content

Nothing that is implied in an enriched curricular offering should give warrant to the idea that there will be a still further multiplication of studies. On the contrary, the curriculum with a wider reach over contemporary civilization will consist of fewer and more inclusive units of study.

In liberal education we are about done with the futile attempt to make each student a jumbled imitation of a whole university faculty of specialists.

We have been working hind end to, and the new program will reverse the process.

Grading

The problems of the child's expanding life must be graded to his ability. This is the only sense in which grading at school means anything vital.

The present method of school grading, as we know it, ought to be taken out of the daily consciousness of public, parents, children and fellow pupils, and whatever is valuable in recorded grading and appraisal, particularly that which we have acquired through new scientific techniques, should be put into the professional and confidential records of the school as an aid to diagnosis, guidance, and the redirection of the process of education.

The psychological grading of school tasks will at once bring to mind the great signal fact of our new scientific knowledge of human beings, that is, their individual differences.

When the profession recognizes that actual differences in children are often due to the accidents of early or present environment, to ill health, and to acquired interest or disinterest, then no deadly fatalism enters into the judgments of teachers. Whatever nature has done to limit a child, we cannot help; whatever environment has done, we may ameliorate. And it is better to assume too much where we can be of help, than too little. Practical justice lies on that side of error.

Standards

The simple standard of the new program is the one which asks with regard to the next step in the teaching of a child: Will it conduce to the pupil's greater personal development? If the answer is "yes," the step is right. If it is "no," the step is wrong.

And it is conceivably better to get more education in a lopsided way than very much less in a regularized way.

What we do now is something mechanical and rigid. We should abandon the system altogether in favor of direct personal judgments which are likely to achieve minor as well as major justices. Initial right treatment is better than wrong treatment corrected.

Opportunity

Leadership and followership alternate in every group, and they are alternate rôles in every personal life, shifting with the situations, problems and persons present. Careful observations of the way in which the world actually carries on in a democratic society confirms the policy and it may well be adopted by schools as a way to give persons with different qualities a chance to practice the skills of leadership and the appreciations of followership.

Self-education

Teachers do not actually believe it, but in fact they are prone to act in their dealings with children as though education begins and ends with schooling. How otherwise could we feel that we have an overcrowded curriculum? All we have is overpressure due to a badly constructed curriculum.

To conceive of schooling as a mere part of the whole and continuing process of education will put the emphasis on learning rather than teaching. Schooling will become mere self-education under teacher stimulation and assistance. In fact, the teacher under the new regime will become a supervisor of learners.

The effect on the pupil would be even greater. He would have a new responsibility and feel a new challenge. The initiative would be his. The responsibility would be his. With each passing month and year his self-reliance and his capacity for independent inquiry and study would increase. There is not one of these qualities that does not represent a highly desirable trait in the citizen.

Self-education can keep up to date, while schooling probably never does.

With this new conception of the school process we might be tempted to ask why the number of students assigned to a teacher should grow steadily less and the cost steadily more from the primary school to the college. It might seem that the better trained, the more mature and independent the student, the greater service he could render himself in a process which is mainly one of self-education.

Teachers

Hereafter the teacher's human interest, sympathy, and understanding will be just as important a part of his equipment as his academic and technical training, and probably more fundamental.

He will not be so much a teacher of subjects as a moulder of men and women.

Now it must begin to be clear that teacher training will need to be reorganized.

I am fearful of certain conspicuous trends among the teacher training group of progressional educators. Of all educators they should have fewer of the diseases of academic scholars and more of the virtues of humanized teachers. But just now they are advocating more pay and more promotion for mere training of the type we do not most need. Just now they are playing into the hands of the ancient foe—the specialists of the academic life, trying to revamp their curricula so as to make entrance to candidacy for academic degrees easier for their graduates so that their institutions will be, not educationally and socially more useful, but academically more respectable.

Most of all we need the cooperation of the teacher training profession if the educative process is to be the potent spiritual instrument of American civilization in its program for tomorrow.

A fortnight after his untimely death, the Executive Committee of the American Council on Education at its meeting October 7, 1933 unanimously ordered the following statement spread upon the record:

Henry Suzzallo has left us never to return. Words of ours can never portray the sincerity of our sorrow or our consciousness of irreparable loss. In memory of him we resolve that we will carry on the building of that kindlier civilization which he dreamed in his dreams and did so much to realize in action. His vision of education as the fundamental instrument for creating that civilization remains with us to inspire us. His words and his deeds are forever present to guide us.

A Judge Speaks for Education

By M. ERNEST TOWNSEND

I incline to the opinion that education is no longer concerned merely with the acquisition of facts; the instilling of worthy habits, attitudes, appreciations, and skills is far more important than mere imparting of subject matter. A primary objective of education today is the development of character and good citizenship. Education must impart to the child the way to live. This brings me to the belief that in a cosmopolitan area such as we live in, with all the complexities of life, and our reliance upon others to carry out the functions of education, it is almost impossible for a child to be adequately taught in his home. I cannot conceive how a child can receive in the home instruction and experiences in group activity and in social outlook in any manner or form comparable to that provided in the public school. To give him less than that is depriving the child of the training and development of the most necessary emotions and instincts of life.

THE quotation cited above was not written by a professional educator, attempting to state and clarify the aims and purposes of modern education. It is, rather, quoted *verbatim* from the decision of the Honorable Joseph Siegler, Judge of the Essex County, New Jersey, Juvenile and Domestic Relations Court, in a case¹ brought to require attendance in the public schools of West Orange, New Jersey, of the two sons, aged 12 years and 11 years, of the defendants in the case.

In order to orient the reader, it may be said that the case in question was not unlike others involving the enforcement of compulsory attendance laws, and "arose out of a complaint filed in that court by the Attendance Officer of the School District of the Town of West Orange, in the performance of a duty prescribed by law . . . in that they [the parents] failed to cause their said children . . . to regularly attend the

¹ Helen Stephens, of the Board of Education of the Town of West Orange, N. J., complainant, *vs.* B. Bongart and G. Bongart, defendants.

public schools of West Orange."² As is not uncommon, from the citations quoted in Judge Siegler's decision, the case turned on two issues: first, the contention of the defendants, through counsel, that "the statute under which these proceedings are brought . . . is unconstitutional because it invades the Fourteenth Amendment of the United States Constitution,"³ and second, "whether or not the defendants provided instruction for their children equivalent to that provided in the public schools for children of similar grades and attainments."³

Judge Siegler decided on the first point that "This act not contravening the Constitution, is held, therefore, to be a valid exercise of the police powers of the state."³ (The act referred to is the New Jersey Compulsory Attendance Law which need not be quoted here.)

It is rather with Judge Siegler's discussion of the second issue that we are especially interested here, since the quotation heading this article states a position so advanced and far reaching as to be in the nature of an epoch-making pronouncement.

With the testimony in the case, we need only say that it was of considerable volume and included the introduction of expert testimony by professional educators of established reputation. Through the courtesy of Judge Siegler the author was permitted to review the official record of the case. Counsel for complainant and defendants were both able men and the conduct of the case was on a significantly high plane, so far as a layman may be allowed to judge.

We are accustomed by now to see and hear from the press in published volumes, in magazines, and from rostrum or radio, pronouncements of professional educationists, holding that in a modern society any concept of education which narrows it to the mere function of literacy-maintenance is inadequate. None too great acceptance of this point of view

² Quoted from pamphlet issued by the Board of Education, Town of West Orange, New Jersey, entitled "Decision Rendered by Honorable Joseph Siegler," January 1937.

³ *Op. cit. supra* (1).

is evident, however, even in the ranks of those who are engaged in teaching. The academicians are still, for the most part, in the saddle, and their vested interests are so strongly entrenched that only the hardier of the liberal educationists give more than lip service to the point of view expressed so vigorously in the opinion quoted above.

Although evidence of the barrenness of mere literacy is not lacking from the general realms of aesthetics, morals, occupation, economics, medicine, psychiatry, and anthropology, we as teachers of youth still in large part live in hopes that if we develop the so-called "skills and knowledges" constituting the subject matter of our culture, by rote, if possible, some sublime alchemy will transmute that stored-up erudition into ethically controlled, sensitive behavior characteristic of well-integrated personality.

The significance of Judge Siegler's decision lies in the fact that he cuts across popular opinion of the day which still overwhelmingly supports the notion that education is training in the learning and remembering of facts. He brushes aside as irrelevant the claim of the parents that since the father is a university graduate in engineering mathematics and the mother had once gone for a brief period to evening college, they were competent to direct the education of their children.

Lest it is charged that meanings are read into the opinion by bias or inference, we quote further from the decision of the judge:

I find . . . that the defendants cannot provide for group or class teaching, and lack the ability to develop attitudes and create a social setting so that the children may be trained to deal with their playmates and friends as a part of a social group; that the public school system provides such social groups and lays emphasis on its [*sic*] development, and stresses the adjustment of the child to group life and group activity and a course of living that he will be required to follow and meet as he goes out into the world.⁴

It is scarcely possible for the most ardent professional advo-

⁴ *Op. cit. supra* (1).

cate for education in social living to utter a more forthright statement of position. It can only be hoped that in the actual conduct of public school education, such sensitive regard for this phase of personality growth is considered as vital and fundamental.

Two things, then, stand out as unique in this decision. The judge recognizes that the home today needs to be supplemented in the process of building social consciousness, social attitudes, and social ideals into the lives of children. Effective as home influence undoubtedly was and is in the primary tasks of socialization within the circle of that group, the complexity of modern urbanized living makes it impossible for the family to undertake both the work of internal family adjustment and that of the wider acculturation. To do so presumes too greatly upon the time of the parent as a member of the family partnership and assumes a grasp of secondary contact characteristics which the modern parent, however well informed, cannot, without forsaking his proper rôle, undertake to comprehend. The decision shows great insight into the residual character of education in schools, in that it acknowledges the necessity in a complex society of supplementing the social function of the family by the operation of an institution peculiarly representative of society's demand for non-primary adjustments. It may have been possible in the relatively simple community of a century ago to make the connection between the demands of family loyalties and norms of conduct, and those surrounding loyalties and norms representative of a self-contained neighborhood, itself relatively isolated from the great society. Today, the intervention of an elaborate socializing influence, the school, is necessary for accomplishing the transition.

The second important element in the decision lies in its clear interpretation of the *nature* of the socializing task of the school. The reader will note that Judge Siegler does not expect the school to aid in the development of personality through indirection. No simple "learning of facts" is here presumed to be adequate. Let the judge speak again:

The school is organized as a miniature community center, a sort of city, where each child considers himself a citizen, with duties toward the community as required on the outside. The educational structure thus developed is in the nature of a group enterprise, where the children work together for the common good. The teacher creates the atmosphere and becomes the guiding influence.⁵

What clearer charter for the experiencing, doing type of school could be written?

The decision of Judge Siegler comes in the course of his routine work as a judge in a court to which are brought the problems arising out of family maladjustment and juvenile delinquency. Or would it be better to reverse the terms, and say "juvenile maladjustment and family delinquency"? Far from weakening the function of the family, he only places reasonable bounds upon its efforts. He sees in the school, society's agent for broad acculturation, including, to be sure, the organized presentation of the skills and arts of civilization. Possessed of deeper insight, he goes one step further, however, in assigning to the school the organized guidance of its pupils into the ways of living approved by the culture it interprets. Emotionalized attitudes, loyalties to group ideals, predisposition to weigh action, and assume responsibility—all these are taught best by active, purposeful undertaking in situations having present validity to the child. In defining equivalency of instruction, the judge offers to schools and parents alike the challenge of a realistic approach to the task of learning how to live. It may well be said that this decision ennobles and dignifies the task of formal, organized education as no mere citation of the law could hope to do. Teachers, in the light of this decision, can scarcely content themselves with the routine presentation of lessons to be learned. The teacher must, to paraphrase a sentence in the decision, be trained to develop individuality and the personality of each child under her supervision. Such insight will come to teachers only when they know the nature of children

⁵ *Op. cit. supra* (1).

as whole personalities and the nature and exactions of modern social life. According to the decision here presented, a prime requisite for the professional practice of teaching shall consist of adequate ability to inquire into and interpret the process of human maturation, physical, mental, emotional, and ethical. Facts are sterile things. They have no vitality in themselves. Skills, running riot, can as easily break as make a life. Insight into process, patient setting of conditions, careful appraisal of hazards to be met, and the establishment of appropriate loyalties become thus the crux of the teacher's work. Education is indeed indebted to the judge for this interpretation.

A Preface to the Principles of Student Counseling*

By W. H. COWLEY

ABOUT dawn one morning a few years ago a Cleveland policeman found a drunk sleepily hugging a lamp post. The copper shook the inebriate into an approach to consciousness and told him to be on his way. "Where am I?" queried the drunkard. "You're at the corner of Euclid Avenue and Ninth Street," replied the policeman. "Never mind the details," countered the drunk, "what city am I in?"

This anecdote seems to me to have considerable pertinence in discussing counseling and other student relations. Personnel workers, as I know them, are in general as confused as the wandering toper of the story. And for much the same reason: we are intoxicated by strong drink—in our case the heady distillations of psychological research and of never-ceasing educational experimentation. Bewildered by the plethora of scientific details and of new administrative techniques, we have lost our bearings; and each of us clings to his own particular lamp post and its dim light in the surrounding shadows. We are befuddled, but perhaps by swapping ideas we can increase the candle-power we have in common.

What I have to say is, frankly, but an introduction to a great deal more that I hope to be able to say when I am more sure of my footing. The title of my paper, therefore, is not that which is printed in the program, "The Principles of Student Counseling," but rather "A Preface to the Principles of Student Counseling." The word "preface" here means not only preliminary but also exploratory and tentative. It also means incomplete.

* A paper read before the American College Personnel Association, New Orleans, Louisiana, February 18, 1937.

Without stopping to enlarge upon the abounding confusion¹ which most of us recognize and which Dr. Lee emphasized yesterday, I should like to jump into the midst of the counseling problem by inquiring: Why have schools and colleges appointed student counselors? In attempting to answer this question I hope to indicate three fundamental characteristics of counseling: first, counseling as the personalization of education; second, counseling as the integration of education; and third, counseling as the coordination of student personnel services.

Counseling, may I particularly urge, has many more facets than these three. Some in this audience will undoubtedly feel that more important than any of them, or of all of them combined, is the principle that counseling to be effective must be deeply rooted in scientific techniques and the scientific point of view. My passing over this pivotal factor in counseling does not mean that I would neglect it. Rather I do not include it in this discussion because in my judgment it must be prefaced by these three which I am here exploring. May I repeat, then, that these three concepts are basic but by no means the whole story about counseling principles.

By counseling in this discussion, therefore, I mean not vocational, religious, placement, or any other variety of specialized consultation with students but counseling in the broad, that is to say, seeing the student and working with him as a whole person.

COUNSELING AS THE PERSONALIZATION OF EDUCATION

Specifically, why have schools and colleges appointed counselors? Among the several reasons which may be cited, the most important is this: counselors have been appointed to counteract the deadening mechanical limitations of mass education. Such a statement made as late as this in the personnel movement sounds very much like a platitude, but yet it is so

¹ For a discussion of this confusion see the writer's article, "The Nature of Student Personnel Work," *THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD*, XVII (April 1936), 198-226.

frequently taken for granted or even forgotten that a review of the historical facts seems to me not only to be in order but also to be essential. In this brief and sketchy scanning of the tangled past I shall confine myself to higher education, but much the same set of circumstances led to the appointment of counselors in the schools.

Until the time of the Civil War college faculty members expressed a deep and persistent personal interest in their students. Most faculty members were clergymen, and as such they believed that the souls of their students were quite as important as their minds. Because of their strict religious philosophy, they kept continuous watch over student behavior, set up elaborate codes of conduct, and daily visited students in their rooms to keep them from evil practices. Often they prayed with students individually, supplementing the daily chapel exercises which were long and compulsory. Revivals were annual and greatly stressed events, and the old histories of the colleges are filled as much with reports of student religious life as with reviews of the curriculum and methods of instruction. Mark Hopkins, on his famous log, discussed the salvation of the student's soul quite as often as the liberation of his mind.² In brief, before the great changes brought about by the Industrial Revolution, the colleges were intimate institutions, personal relationships between students and students and between students and faculty members being the most important characteristic of every college in the country. This personalization, however, revolved about the predominant Calvinism which permeated even the more liberal sects: severe discipline to keep the Old Adam under control and an overwhelming religious experience carefully arranged to give birth to the New Adam. The mind of the student would be cultivated in the classical curriculum, so the theory ran, but the soul of the student needed to be redeemed before the awful spectacle of Jonathan Edwards' roaring and white-hot hell.

The reaction against this excessive personal interest in stu-

² Clarence F. Birdseye, *Individual Training in Our Colleges* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1907), p. 168.

dents began with the rise of Unitarianism,³ and it spread slowly until all the leading colleges abandoned it. Religious fervor lost its appeal to educated minds. Faculties discovered that riots, rebellions, and gross moral lapses inevitably followed when students sobered from their emotional debauches in the name of religion. Higher education about this time also began to be overwhelmed by the tremendous expansion of knowledge attendant upon the rise of science and the new technology. Professors, a diminishing number of whom were clergymen, found it necessary, in order to keep up with the times, to neglect students and to bury themselves in their libraries and laboratories. The old variety of student relations died almost completely. Francis Wayland⁴ began the attack at Brown in 1842; Tappan⁵ followed him at Michigan ten years later; Barnard⁶ joined them at Mississippi and Columbia soon thereafter; White⁷ at Cornell added the force of his tremendous prestige to the new point of view; and Eliot, fresh from his study of European education, read in his inaugural address⁸ at Harvard in 1869—and regularly thereafter—the irrevocable death sentence of the old order.⁹ Students were to be considered adult men who could meet and solve their religious and other problems in any way they personally pleased. The college officially expressed but perfunctory interest.

³ J. H. Denison, *Mark Hopkins* (New York: Scribner's, 1935), pp. 241-42.

⁴ Francis Wayland, *Thoughts on the Present Collegiate System* (Boston: Kendall and Lincoln, 1842).

⁵ Andrew C. McLaughlin, "History of Higher Education in Michigan," *Bureau of Education Circular of Information No. 4, 1891* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1891), p. 52.

⁶ F. A. P. Barnard, "Analysis of Some Statistics of Collegiate Education," a paper read before the Trustees of Columbia College, January 3, 1870 (printed by the college), pp. 28-29.

⁷ *Autobiography of Andrew Dickson White* (New York: Century, 1905), I, 349.

⁸ Charles William Eliot, "Inaugural Address as President of Harvard College," *Educational Reform* (New York: Century, 1898), p. 18.

⁹ Charles William Eliot, "Liberty in Education" (Address before the Nineteenth Century Club of New York, in 1885) *Educational Reform* (New York: Century, 1898), pp. 129, 146-47.

This mood spread through all the avenues of student life. The old and deeply ingrained interest in the housing of students vanished. Commons disappeared. The thick, detailed, and excessively stern rule books grew thinner and thinner. The elective system permitted a student to study what he pleased with no one to gainsay him if he chose nothing but elementary courses throughout all his four years. Finally, in 1886,¹⁰ Harvard adopted the continental philosophy of student life in toto by announcing that attendance at classes would no longer be taken for juniors and seniors, they being required, substantially, only to pass examinations. What the student did with his time between registration at the beginning of the year and final examinations at the end no one cared. In the course of four decades the temper of college authorities changed completely. Overweening paternalism gave way to almost complete indifference.

The public, however, refused to accept the new arrangements, and at the same time a number of leading professors and administrators also protested against them. At Harvard the situation came to a head when a student's well-laid plans to enjoy the new liberty went awry. Along with a number of his fellows, this particular student spent most of his time away from Cambridge. Since he did not think that his father would agree to any such plan, he wrote out a number of letters to him before leaving for an extended trip to Bermuda. His roommate agreed to mail them at proper intervals. Unfortunately, however, they neglected to tell the woman who cleaned their rooms of the plan. One day she discovered the pile of letters on the table; and since they were all addressed, sealed, and stamped she forthwith mailed them. The irate father immediately appeared at President Eliot's office demanding an explanation. Alarmed, the Board of Overseers in haste reinstated the attendance ruling. Thus before 1890 ended Harvard's boldest adventure into impersonalization.¹¹

¹⁰ Samuel Eliot Morison, *Three Centuries of Harvard* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1936), pp. 368-69.

¹¹ John Hay Gardiner, *Harvard* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1914), p. 117.

Meanwhile other factors toward indifference to students continued in operation, and it was against these that protests came from individuals within the academic family. After 1870 the colleges began to grow with unprecedented and undreamed of rapidity. The size of classes mounted, first to include scores and later hundreds.¹² The adoption of the elective system increased the number of units of instruction offered until in 1892-93 Harvard was offering 25,128 hours of instruction from which the student was required to pick only 1,872 in order to graduate.¹³ Won away from their established regimen by the glamour of research and the growing necessity to publish the results of investigation in order to gain promotion, faculty members lost much of their old interest in teaching. Administrative officers similarly dropped their intimate concern for student problems as they diverted their time and energies to raising money and developing their institutions into larger colleges or into universities. During the great growth of institutions of higher education in America beginning in the seventies the student became the forgotten man.

In the face of these developments a number of prominent individuals grew alarmed. Bryce,¹⁴ in his great work *The American Commonwealth*, shook his head in doubt about where American education was headed. He observed that "there is not a sufficiently close relationship between teacher and student," and he appealed for the establishment of the tutorial system following the patterns of Oxford and Cambridge. Professor Hadley¹⁵ of Yale wrote a book several years before his accession to the presidency at New Haven denouncing the new tendencies and calling for the preserva-

¹² Birdseye, *Individual Training in Our Colleges*, p. 404.

¹³ Merritt Starr, *The Decline and Revival of Public Interest in College Education* (Chicago: Press of Chas. W. Magill, 1893), p. 19, an address delivered before the graduates of Oberlin College, June 20, 1893.

¹⁴ James Bryce, *The American Commonwealth* (New York: Macmillan, 1915) II, 757.

¹⁵ Arthur T. Hadley, *Four American Universities* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1895), pp. 83-84.

tion of the traditions of student life. Woodrow Wilson¹⁸ recognized the seriousness of the problem upon his assumption of the presidency at Princeton in 1902 and in order to change the trend, he established the preceptorial method of instruction. President Harper¹⁷ of the University of Chicago meanwhile repeatedly discussed the need of individualized student relationships and predicted that within fifty years the individualization of higher education would be achieved by the appointment of special officers who would devote their attention to the students as men and women rather than as minds merely. President Guy Potter Benton of Miami University predicted: "The day is not far distant when in every college we shall have a Professor of Individual Attention."¹⁸ And then in 1909 President Lowell,¹⁹ in his inaugural address, threw the weight of his great position behind the attacks upon impersonalization.

The public, very much interested in the situation, had meanwhile begun to clamor for a return to the small college idea. The movement became so significant that President Harper²⁰ addressed the National Education Association in 1900 attempting to demonstrate that the idea had no validity. Dean Briggs of Harvard, defending the large college, wrote a long article for the *Boston Transcript*²¹ in 1903 which he had reprinted as a booklet and distributed widely over the country, and Dean Keppel²² of Columbia, in his writings, similarly sought to short-circuit the movement.

¹⁸ Varnum Lensing Collins, *Princeton* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1914), pp. 134-35, 267.

¹⁷ Ernest H. Wilkins, "Assumptions Underlying the Individualization of College Education," *Provision for the Individual in College Education*, edited by William S. Gray (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1932), pp. 3-4.

¹⁸ Guy Potter Benton, *The Real College* (Cincinnati: Jennings and Graham, 1909), pp. 163-4.

¹⁹ A. Laurence Lowell, *At War with Academic Traditions in America*, (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1934), pp. 32-45.

²⁰ William Rainey Harper, *The Trend in Higher Education* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1905), pp. 349-90.

²¹ June 24, 1903.

²² Frederick Paul Keppel, *Columbia* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1914), pp. 262-63.

The World War did much to stop this trend back to the small colleges, but meanwhile the large institutions began to recognize that something needed to be done to bring back the personal touch. Too many people were applying to student life in large institutions the slogan of a widely advertised brand of bread: "Untouched by human hands." As early as 1889 the Board of Freshman Advisers appeared at Harvard, and in 1890 the deanship at Harvard College, which had been essentially an academic office, was separated into two deanships providing an academic dean and a dean of student relations.²⁸ Other colleges followed rapidly in the same direction. Counselors of all varieties began to appear in large numbers after the war: deans of freshmen, junior deans, student counselors, deans of men, deans of women, directors of placement bureaus, clinical psychologists, psychiatrists, religious counselors, deans of chapel, and any number of others. Some of these offices had existed before 1914, but the personnel movement really began to become self-conscious in the American college and university after 1918 in this reaction against impersonalization.

During these same years another attempt was made to personalize student relations, that is, the effort to individualize instruction. The preceptorial plan at Princeton, the tutorial program at Harvard, the honors courses at Swarthmore and dozens of other institutions were all efforts from the instructional point of view to meet these protests against the mechanization and de-humanization of higher education. This, however, is a development quite apart from personnel work even though it is frequently confused with it. Our concern here is to recognize that personnel work is one of two major efforts in American higher education to bring back humanity and the personal touch to education. No matter how expert personnel people may be as technically trained psychological testers or diagnosticians, the real test of a personnel program is the extent to which it makes the student feel that he

²⁸ Morrison, *Three Centuries of Harvard*, p. 403.

individually is important—that he is not being educated in a social vacuum. Counseling is, therefore, above all else the personalization of education.

COUNSELING AS EDUCATIONAL INTEGRATION

Student counselors made their appearance in the college chiefly in answer to the growing protest against the impersonalization of education. Another consideration, however, entered into the situation. The spectacular expansion of knowledge attendant upon the nineteenth century flowering of science and the mechanization of modern life produced a curriculum literally thousands of times more extensive than that in vogue in the pre-Civil War college. In 1860, in practically every college in the country, every student took every course of instruction offered. Electives were unnecessary because the pattern of higher education had been historically established, and pressures from society were relatively few. Under the impact of the new forces playing upon American life, however, the fixed curriculum from 1825 on²⁴ gave way slowly to the elective principle. White at Cornell and Eliot at Harvard, building upon the experiences of Harvard, Brown, Vermont, and Michigan, pushed it forward vigorously in the sixties and seventies; and when in 1884²⁵ Harvard dropped all required courses in its complete surrender to the elective system, hardly a college failed in some degree to follow her lead. A new régime had completely replaced the old, and instead of a common core of knowledge for all educated men and women, higher education became "a thing of shreds and patches," a huge, shapeless expanse of courses.

With this growth of the curriculum and the extension of the elective system methods of instruction inevitably changed too. Historians of education greatly stress the abandonment of the

²⁴Samuel E. Morison, "College Studies 1869-1929," *The Development of Harvard University* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1930), pp. xli-ii.

²⁵Herbert Weir Smyth, "The Classics 1867-1929," *The Development of Harvard University*, edited by Samuel E. Morison (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press 1930), p. 36.

recitation for the lecture and laboratory methods, but the most important change of all had to do not with these devices but rather with the specialization of instruction.²⁶ The professor who taught a single subject in which he had specialized did not appear even at Harvard until the arrival of the nineteenth century, and in most colleges until almost the end of the century faculty members were expected to teach anything—and most of them did. For example, Professor Oliver Marcy,²⁷ a member of the faculty and an important administrator at Northwestern University beginning in 1862, at one time or other during his thirty-seven years there taught mathematics, geology, mineralogy, zoology, botany, chemistry, physics, logic, and Greek. Professor Allen C. Thomas²⁸ of Haverford, from 1878 on taught English literature, political economy, constitutional law, biblical literature, religion, and English and American history besides acting as librarian and business manager. Dr. Keppel²⁹ reports that sixty years ago the Scotch professor, Nairne, taught over a field now occupied by forty professorships. These examples might be multiplied many times. They serve, however, to indicate the relative newness of specialized instruction in the American college.

Because of this expansion of specialization and the extension of knowledge, the all-round scholar and teacher disappeared. In his place came the deeply but narrowly trained expert in a division of knowledge, in an ever diminishing slice of the curriculum. Science, to carry on its researches, had staked out knowledge into compartments, and in each compartment men worked upon the minute problems at hand, often, and indeed frequently, all but completely ignorant of the work afoot in other compartments. These boundary lines of scientific and scholarly research have been important in

²⁶ Charles William Eliot, "The Unity of Educational Reform," *Educational Reform* (New York: The Century Co., 1898), pp. 330-32.

²⁷ Estelle Frances Ward, *The Story of Northwestern University* (New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., 1924), p. 100.

²⁸ Rufus M. Jones, *Haverford College* (New York: Macmillan, 1933), p. 102.

²⁹ Keppel, *Columbia*, p. 146.

defining areas of investigation. They rapidly extended, however, into the domain of instruction, and soon all higher education became but a duplicate of the organization of research. The tidal wave of specialized instruction pushed before it all traces of the old-type breadth, and even the arts college and its tradition of liberal education became inundated.

As with the appearance of impersonalization, so also with the compartmentalization of knowledge: protests began to be voiced in increasingly agitated terms. Harper⁸⁰ decried "the lack of proper and effective correlation" in the curriculum. Small,⁸¹ the eminent scholar, whom Harper had made the head of his department of sociology, appealed for a development of a synthesis to counteract the evils of compartmentalization. Lowell, dismayed by the disintegration of the college "both intellectually and socially"⁸² called a halt to the elective system and its tendency to excessive specialization. In this he followed the findings and recommendations of the famous Briggs Committee⁸³ of which he had been an active member. He and his associates had recommended that "every department . . . provide courses for students who are not to be specialists in it." Meiklejohn⁸⁴ in his inaugural address as president of Amherst in 1912, deplored the fact that "more and more the chairs in our colleges are occupied by men who have only . . . special interests . . . specialized information." He pointed out that a liberal education requires the ability to generalize as well as a fund of facts, a unity of knowledge and not necessarily a wide range of knowledge. He anticipated Small in calling for "a new synthesis."

James Harvey Robinson⁸⁵ took up the protest a few years

⁸⁰ Harper, *The Trend in Higher Education*, pp. 99-100.

⁸¹ Albion Small, *Origins of Sociology* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1924), p. 10.

⁸² Lowell, *At War with Academic Traditions in America*, p. 33.

⁸³ Birdseye, *Individual Training in Our Colleges*, p. 405.

⁸⁴ Norman Foerster et al., *Essays for College Men* (New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1925), pp. 49-52.

⁸⁵ James Harvey Robinson, *The Humanizing of Knowledge* (New York: George H. Doran Company, 1923), pp. 76, 82, 94-95, 103-4, 108.

later in his book *The Humanizing of Knowledge*. He deplored the taking over by instructors of the artificial boundaries and endless details of scientific research, and he observed that while these divisions of knowledge might be useful for investigators, they were fatal when employed in the instruction of undergraduates. Agreeing with Robinson, Professor Whitehead points to "the feebleness of coordination" and petitions for a return of the university to its original function of sound generalization.³⁶ The latest protest comes from President Hutchins of Chicago in his two recent books. "Education," he asserts, "becomes narrower and narrower,"³⁷ because of the "dividing up of subjects into smaller and smaller bits,"³⁸ and he proposes a return to the medieval curriculum as the only effective solution.³⁹ Canby, looking back upon his undergraduate days at Yale in the nineties writes: "The faculty of those days . . . had one of the great opportunities of educational history, and muffed it . . . they taught physics for physicists, biology for biologists, history for historians. . . . It was as if St. Paul had spent his energies upon raising theologians and let the Gentiles go hang."⁴⁰ This criticism, most of us agree, still applies.

Into the midst of this situation the student counselor has been projected.⁴¹ The unhappy results of the excessive subdividing of knowledge are coming to be generally recognized by everyone except those too deeply and too blindly entrenched

³⁶ A. N. Whitehead, *The Aims of Education and Other Essays* (New York: Macmillan, 1929), *in passim*.

³⁷ Robert M. Hutchins, *No Friendly Voice* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1936), p. 173.

³⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 36-37.

³⁹ Robert M. Hutchins, *The Higher Learning in America* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1936).

⁴⁰ Henry Seidel Canby, *Alma Mater* (New York: Farrar & Rinehart, 1936), pp. 87-89.

⁴¹ For an excellent discussion of the effects of specialization upon secondary schools see Sir John Adam's chapter entitled "Integralism" in Schilpp's *Higher Education Faces the Future* (New York: Horace Liveright, 1930), pp. 75-96.

in their specialties. Survey courses initiated originally by Meikeljohn at Amherst are becoming more numerous and slowly more popular; the formula of concentration and distribution after the Harvard pattern has become almost universal; and a number of other methods have been proposed to achieve a more desirable integration of education. These devices have helped, but in most colleges the student counselor is, or is expected to be, the integrator. His job is not merely to personalize education, it is also to help the student to evolve a unified course of instruction. Left to himself the average student will wander miscellaneously through the curriculum. It is an important responsibility of the counselor to discover the student's talents and motivations and to put the resources of the institution at his service to develop and to carry them forward. It is similarly a responsibility of the counselor to integrate the student's instructional program not only to meet his personal needs but also to see that in a broad sense he becomes an educated man.

This, of course, is no easy task, particularly in the light of strict and often stupid faculty rules. As everyone knows who has served as a counselor, the obstacles of vested faculty interests often seem insurmountable, and it may well be that the only effective answer will be the complete reorganization of the curriculum in some such fashion as President Hutchins suggests, or after the example of some of the programs adopted by a handful of the more progressive colleges. The next decade will throw much light upon how the problem of educational integration will be solved. Meanwhile in the present scheme of things, and in almost any future plan, the counselor must play a large part. Without integration there can be no acceptable education. That seems to be conceded by the best minds struggling with the problems of higher education. In most colleges no officer exists to undertake the function of integration except the counselor. He has, therefore, an opportunity of huge proportions. Even though the problems associated with the undertaking be almost staggering

in their complexity, the challenge must be met if counseling as an educational undertaking is ever to attain important status.

COUNSELING AS THE COORDINATION OF STUDENT PERSONNEL SERVICES

I have attempted, in discussing counseling as the personalization and integration of education to answer the question which I stated at the outset: "Why have schools and colleges appointed student counselors?" I should like in this last section to discuss a consideration which is operational rather than historical: the problem, in brief, of the relationship of counseling to other student personnel services.

The broad variety of educational counseling which we are here discussing is, of course, but one of some fifteen or sixteen student personnel functions. A complete list takes in all relationships with students aside from formal instruction and business relationships. That definition of the field of student personnel activities seems now to be generally agreed upon. These functions include admissions, freshman orientation, health services, student housing, loans and scholarships, employment placement, the administration of social life and extra-curricular activities, and a number of others. All these undertakings are essential and inevitable under the present plan of American higher education, all are important, and all are closely related one to another. The most significant of them all, however, is educational counseling. I present this as a proposition, and I shall attempt to defend it.

Modern society and modern higher education have become so complex that a variety of personnel services have become necessary in colleges and universities. Many of them require the services of specialists. Physicians, of course, can alone undertake health services. Psychologists and psychiatrists are the best individuals to help students solve effectively their emotional and social problems. Programs of extra-curricular activities have become so extensive that special officers have

been appointed to direct and supervise them. The placement of students in part-time jobs and in permanent employment has assumed such proportions that literally hundreds of institutions have employed full-time men and women to administer them. Vocational counseling, wherever it is recognized to be an unavoidable responsibility of the college and wherever it is understood to be essentially a scientific job, requires experts. Through all the list of student personnel services specialization, in large institutions at least, has become inevitable. Even in small institutions different types of student relations are becoming more and more to be separated and to be assigned to different individuals.

With all this growing specialization, the same danger faces student personnel programs as faced and overwhelmed instruction. Established primarily to overcome impersonalization and the forces of disintegration, personnel work is coming perilously near to falling into exactly these same errors. We are chopping up the student into bits, each bit being assigned to a different individual upon the personnel staff. The physician sees the student about his health and knows little if anything concerning his social, financial, and academic status. The director of part-time employment service sees him essentially, and perhaps entirely, as a boy who needs a job. The educational counselor frequently has no knowledge of him except the courses which he is taking. This is a critical state of affairs for personnel work. Of a certainty there is wisdom in a multitude of counselors, but the truth of this proverb must not permit us to allow the same sort of segmentation to develop which we have been appointed to counteract. Too many counselors are merely high-priced distributive clerks or narrowly trained technicians. The situation demands that we be enlightened and dynamic educators.

Protests against this tendency have already been given voice. I cite but two. The first comes from the pen of that refreshing critic of the colleges, Dean Max McConn of Lehigh. Addressing a conference of registrars on "57 Varieties

of Guidance" in 1928, he reported the confusion of the average professor to the multitudinous array of student personnel services.⁴² The second comes from Dean Haggerty of the University of Minnesota who about the same time wrote as follows:

The number of counseling agencies in some institutions is, indeed, surprising. In one college a student may receive advice and counsel from any one, or from all, of the following officers and agencies: the president, the college dean—in some cases as many as three of them—the dean of men, the dean of women, the registrar, the department head, faculty advisers—numbers of them—students' health service, the department of physical education and hygiene, including athletic coaches, a variety of special counselors such as the psychologist, the psychiatrist, the social worker, the vocational counselor, and the personnel officer, to say nothing of the multiplicity of student advisers disinterested and otherwise. Most of this advising is centered upon the hapless freshman who certainly escapes bewilderment only by some incapacity to respond to all the variable and often conflicting advising agencies.⁴³

The hapless freshman to whom Dean Haggerty refers is not alone in his bewilderment. We who are personnel officers are also bewildered. We see the pressing necessity for all these specialized services which we have established, but as yet we have, in general, arrived at no formula to bring an end to the confusion. I had an experience last year which illustrates this point. I was asked by the president of a small Ohio college to help him reorganize his personnel program. At a conference in his office with himself, the dean of men, and the dean of women, I raised this question: "Who in your institution sees the student as a whole person rather than as an individual with some specific problem needing solution? Who, in brief, knows everything about a student in relationship to

⁴² Max McConn, "57 Varieties of Guidance," *Bulletin of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, III, No. 4 (April 1928), 351-52.

⁴³ Melvin E. Haggerty, "Experimenting with the College Teacher's Problems," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XV, No. 1 (March 1929), 104.

his total personality?" The president and his two deans had apparently never thought about such a question. With hardly any further discussion they agreed that something needed to be done immediately to coordinate their student personnel efforts.

The proposal which I made and which they accepted proved to be workable. I suggested that the individual responsible for the educational counseling of the student (in their plan, the dean of men and the dean of women) be assigned the responsibility for counseling coordination. Their plan may best be visualized by considering the educational counselor as the hub of a wheel with the specialized counseling and other personnel services out on the circumference. The spokes of the wheel represent the routing of information from the specialists to the coordinating educational counselor. This counselor meets the student upon his matriculation, works with him as an individual, and directs him to other members of the staff who are best qualified to help him solve particular problems. In all instances, however, he comes back to the educational counselor together with the findings of the specialists unless, of course, he meets among the specialists a counselor with whom he discovers a greater rapport. With these facts before him the counselor is able to see the student from all discoverable angles; and if he is clever and sympathetic, the student considers him to be the individual to whom he may best look for integrated, coordinated assistance.

A program such as this, of course, is difficult, particularly in large institutions. The machinery of higher education too frequently interferes with its objectives. We need, however, to recognize that the problem of excessive specialization in our own personnel services is one of our major problems, and we must, it seems to me, direct our continuous attention and concentrated intelligence upon it. We also have ever before us the insistent problem of the administrative coordination of personnel services. This, however, is not the same as the problem of the coordination of counseling. The distinction

is important although it may not now be developed. Enough in this discussion to point out the imperative necessity of organizing and correlating the counseling given to the individual student.

When we have solved this problem of coordination the quips of Boucher⁴⁴ and others that personnel work is an educational fifth wheel will no longer annoy us. Of course personnel work is the fifth wheel! In all problems of student relations it's the most important wheel of all: the steering wheel. This, be assured, is not rhetoric but an administrative fact. It is, moreover, a challenging opportunity for all personnel people.

⁴⁴Chauncey S. Boucher, "Progressive Developments in the Colleges," *Personnel Journal*, IX (June 1930), 20-27.

Education in the Present World Crisis*

By WILLIAM ALANSON WHITE

A NUMBER of years ago the President of the United States called to his office Mr. John Joy Edson, one of the greatest philanthropists that this city has ever produced, and said to him, in substance: "Mr. Edson, I want you to head up a committee to look into the conduct and construction of the prisons of the United States in order that you may form an opinion as to the needs in that respect of the District of Columbia, and as a result of your researches and deliberations I want you to draw up a plan for such an institution." Mr. Edson was somewhat dumfounded by this request and replied by saying: "But, Mr. President, I have never been in a prison in my life," to which the President replied, "That is exactly the reason I want you. I want an unprejudiced opinion."

As probably most of you know, this committee functioned in the way outlined and the result was Occoquan, which has fulfilled the hopes that Mr. Edson had. The interesting part of the story, however, is that this experiment which was carried to a successful issue was agreed to by only two wardens in the United States. In other words, the President's feeling about prejudice was fully sustained. He felt that if the prison authorities were consulted they would make recommendations along the usual stereotyped lines that had been in operation for many years.

Now it is interesting what Mr. Edson found. His interpretation of his researches into American prisons can be expressed in a few words by saying that he felt when he got through that the rigid discipline of the prisons and even their construction of single cells were due entirely to a very few prisoners, that perhaps half a dozen out of every thousand men would

* Address delivered at the Winter Convocation of the George Washington University, Monday, February 22, 1937.

belong to the type that were uncontrollable either by kindness or punishment. They were the few men for whom no one had ever found a technique that would deal with them successfully. Therefore the whole prison must be run upon lines dictated by their conduct. His idea of a prison was to segregate these very few men and deal with them separately, and then deal with the rest of the prisoners very much as one would deal with anyone else. And so Occoquan was built not in accordance with the cell system of construction but on the dormitory system. Men were not forbidden to speak in the dining-room but were permitted to converse, and the whole social atmosphere of the place was a distinct improvement over the usual prison and resulted in a humanization of the confinement which society thinks necessary for offenders.

I tell you this story because, as you will see from the title of my paper, I am going to speak on the subject of education, and I am quite as ignorant of the subject of education as Mr. Edson was of prisons. My only excuse in talking of it, therefore, is the same excuse that he would offer if he were here today, and that is that my mind is open regarding it and that I am tolerant and unprejudiced.

To begin with, like the preacher, I feel that it might be helpful to have a text, and that text I will take from Marcus Aurelius. It is as follows: "What then is that which is able to conduct a man? One thing and only one, philosophy." And so with your permission I will philosophize for a few moments on the subject of education.

I do not need to tell this audience that we are living in a changing world, a world in which the changes are of such magnitude and come with such rapidity as to cause feelings of apprehension as to the stability, at least of certain aspects of our civilization. I do not need either to tell you that the salvation of this world is in the hands of the coming generations: the young men and the young women who are now graduating from college and the graduates who are going to be added to their ranks year after year; that we of the older generations will probably have little to say as to what the future brings

forth. Therefore, it is obviously a matter for serious consideration by all our educational institutions as to what sort of experiences they will subject their students to in preparation for this great responsibility.

In thinking over my own life and my own experiences in school and college, it seems to me—and I say “seems” advisedly because I know only too well how treacherous the memory is for one’s youth—that in the first place I had an unusually splendid group of teachers from the very beginning to the very end of my educational career, men and women who were consecrated to their task, who were of high character and not only men and women of learning but of wisdom. Nevertheless as I look back upon those days and try to think what they taught me in terms of actual factual material I can hardly remember a thing. Most of the facts they taught me are either forgotten or else today they have ceased to be facts, and because of this personal experience I have felt very strongly that the teaching of facts was not a very important part of education. Of course we all know that the construction engineer has to have the ability to determine certain facts regarding the foundation upon which he is going to put his building, regarding the strength of material he is going to use and what strength he is going to need, that he must be able to calculate the breaking point of steel girders subjected to stresses of various kinds; and there are thousands of other things that he must know. But after all in the scheme of education I consider these on the whole as of minor importance. I believe that the greatest privilege that comes to the youth of this land is to sit under the instruction of men of ripe wisdom and of fine character, who are capable of inspiring in the student those qualities of curiosity and eagerness to learn and devotion to what they conceive to be their calling in life that make the true manhood and womanhood that we are aiming for.

The teacher occupies a tactical position of great strategic importance in the life of the student. The student goes to college, if he goes there at all seriously, with ideas of the

wonders that he will learn there and of the marvelous men who know so much as to be his professors. These men must be first of all men of character, because the students will characteristically identify themselves with their beloved teachers and attempt to emulate them. It was Goethe who said, "We learn only from those whom we love." This identification with the teacher is of especial significance where perhaps the home situation has broken down and the parents have ceased to be adequate models for the youth to follow.

Now there are two aspects of the educational problem from this point which seem to me of very great significance. The first one I have already intimated in my text, and that is that each young man as he starts out in the world should assemble himself sufficiently to know what he wants to do, not only what he wants to do with his whole heart and soul but what he must do. Stanley Hall used to say, in substance, that that thing which a man wanted to do if he wanted to do it with his whole self was something that he would be willing to die for. A student who enters the world with a task to perform that is as close to his heart as that need fear nothing. He is provided with an impenetrable armor against all attack.

But the other thing which I am particularly anxious to speak of at this point is really the subject of my talk, and that is that education should not only be prepared to help the young person find his interests and satisfy his curiosity—in fact I think it already largely does this—but it should attempt something more. If I have any criticism of our educational system it is that on the whole—especially in the education of our very young children, and that is the most important period of their lives—it is too stereotyped and too standardized. The human individual is unique. There are no two human beings on the face of the earth that are alike and there never can be. And as for you and for me, we will never have our exact equals in all the thousands of years to come, and if we conceivably could, the world would be so different that these hypothetically similarly constituted individuals would really be different too. Now this unique individual material is all

poured into one mold and subjected to one set of standards. There is no possibility that the best results can emerge from such a system.

Let me call your attention to one or two propositions that I think you will all agree with me are quite correct. One is that the man who has found his proper niche in life is infinitely happier than the man who has not. One of the great tragedies of an industrial civilization is that most of the human beings who comprise it have to work daily at tasks in which they have little interest and with which they cannot identify themselves in any adequate way, and they have to do this in order to live. The old craftsman apparently has disappeared forever and in his place there are the human cogs in the wheels of a mechanized world. We should have every understanding and sympathy with the lot of people whose lives must necessarily be devoted to such activities. Another proposition with which I think you will agree is that the person who is so interested in his work that his life objectives are a part of his heart and soul retains his youth, his mental youth at any rate, longer than do others. He loves what he is doing. The wear and tear of the daily task is not so great. The strain of life upon him is much less. Now following these propositions I should like to put a question. It is a question which I know cannot be answered but it is a question for which we might seek and find an answer. Is it not possible for education to devise ways and means of helping to conserve the flexibility of youth, to maintain the alert curiosity and eagerness of that period of life, to stress more particularly these qualities than just the addition to each individual of a certain number of measurable facts?

I have already spoken of this changing world. You will see the connection between my suggestion and that statement. Every time great changes have occurred in world ideologies they have been accompanied by great tragedies, especially when these ideologies were political and economic. If only the flexibility of youth could be retained somewhat longer or in somewhat larger measure, these changes which seemingly

are inevitable and with regard to which we play a part of unknown importance, could be more readily negotiated. We know from our everyday experience that the oldsters among us hang on to the ideas of yesteryear, and the youngsters look forward with enthusiasm to the changes that are going to take place in the future. If we could lessen the crystallization that comes with the years we would find that the enthusiasms of youth would not meet with such rigid resistances from their elders. I have only one suggestion to make that would perhaps help to bring this about, and that is that the youth should be taught the historical development of ideas and percepts, the ideologies and methodologies of politics and of economics, in short the history of the growth of ideas and feelings, of the changes of thinking, the alterations of concepts which have come to pass during historical times. If one knew this story one would not only be more tolerant of alleged new concepts when they are broached but he would frequently see in them the recurrence of ideas that have long ago played their part upon the stage and then supposedly made their exit.

I was brought up in an absolutistic, rigid world, in which the laws of cause and effect and the indestructibility of matter reigned supreme and in which psychology was called "moral philosophy." These self-imposed limitations are now being questioned and psychology has become a biological science and whatever the results we must stand by them, and do so with the realization that another step has been taken in an understanding of the world in which we live and of ourselves. The frontiers of knowledge are ever advancing over what for most of the people at any given time are impossible barriers. The educational process is not merely a matter of lecturing to a class, or of giving lessons in books and the holding of examinations for the purpose of determining what the student can remember. It is much more a process in the field of the psychology of interpersonal relations. Is it not possible to begin to plan out of all we know a curriculum that will help to preserve the plasticity of the mind? Is it not only possible to

tell of things as they are but to tell the fascinating story of how they came to be what they are? There are regions of knowledge, or perhaps I should say fields of research, that have never been tapped for this purpose. Time does not permit me to discuss this recommendation or to elaborate by making additional ones. I merely want to say that I have made this single recommendation, which may seem inappropriate, for the reason that in our work in psychiatry it has been demonstrated that a review of the historical aspects of a given pathological situation may be curative. Is it too much to ask this question and too much to expect results from its answer?

We need to put to work such concepts as the modern developments of psychology have given us, and to realize that the world is changed as much by our perception of it as we are changed by it, and that the idea that pure objectivity can be attained in perception is a myth. The unique individual that I believe every man to be, with years of a unique life experience back of him, could not possibly approach any problem exactly like any one else. When he perceives the world and thinks about it his perceptions must have an anthropomorphic character and his conclusions must be tinged by prejudice. It is inevitable. We need to read what we have written into our perceptions as much as we need to observe the world. When we learn to do this the frontier of our knowledge will have made another significant advance.

The Relation of Schools of Business to Colleges of Engineering and Law*

By W. N. MITCHELL

THREE broad questions are immediately suggested by this subject: (1) What is the occasion for proposing consideration of an assumed community of interest between schools of business, engineering, and law? (2) What is the basis of this assumed community of interest in these particular disciplines? (3) Granting its existence, how is it to be given recognition in the educational policies of those responsible for providing formal professional training in these different fields?

With reference to the first of these three questions it appears that the answer may be found in various considerations. They range, on the one hand, from economic necessity for consolidation of resources in our educational institutions to the rather disturbing questioning in many places of the appropriateness in a program of higher education of much of what in its narrow vocational aspects has hitherto passed for professional training, on the other. With this broadening of view it is but natural that it should be recognized that these several specialized disciplines may after all have more in common than was at first supposed.

Our professional schools of collegiate grade, like the highly differentiated divisions of the graduate school of the modern university, are an outgrowth of specialization. They were inspired by a growing conviction that the broad general training in the liberal arts college of several generations ago from whence they sprang was not sufficiently versatile or intensive to provide the specialized leadership required in an increasingly complex world. Unfortunately, this specialized training

* Read before the nineteenth annual meeting of the American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, March 22, 1937.

has sometimes come to be regarded as a substitute for general educational training instead of the superstructure to be erected upon that broad base. This has tended to narrowness of view by faculty as well as student and as one result we have the rather curious phenomenon of insistence by the various professional school faculties that their needs are so special that they must assume responsibility for training their own students in subject matter clearly included in the category of general education.

Understand, I am not disposed to criticize this tendency as a general proposition. I realize that the college departments responsible for these essential tool courses in the general educational program, whether because of ignorance of the practical applications of their disciplines, sheer inertia, or other interests which they deem more important, often are not disposed to do the job as it must be done if the student is to enter upon the technical work of the professional schools with an adequate equipment of the various tools and skills of his profession. I am not unmindful that this duplication of courses often does not increase greatly the total cost of instruction in the university budget and I realize, also, that there are real gains to be secured by assembling a class with a common background and common interests—gains sufficiently substantial no doubt in many instances to justify the practice. My point is simply this: it is a practice that must be justified only on such grounds, and in the multiplication of these courses in our curricula we need not be surprised if our motives and our judgment are called into question by university administrations harassed by an unbalanced budget.

There is need, of course, for trained technicians. The world requires its draftsmen, chemists, machine designers, and electrical experts; its bookkeepers, copywriters, statistical clerks, and bond salesmen; its law clerks and legal errand boys concentrating their efforts upon the task of keeping people free of legal entanglements. But all of these employments, important though they be, are not much above the trade school level and can scarcely be regarded as the prime objective of

professional training. Professional training, if it is to be justified, must make some contribution to constructive leadership as well as to the training of the rank and file in the body politic and this implies a breadth of view extending far beyond the narrow confines of applied physical science, proficiency in unraveling legal technicalities, or knowledge of routine business procedure. Specialization implies coordination, and coordination requires leadership by those who, though none the less specialists, are capable of looking far beyond the boundaries of their own specialties and seeing them in relation to other fields of specialization. To the extent to which we are able to do this do we merit our claims to truly professional status. To the extent to which we fail in this is the term "trade school" rather than "professional school" likely to be regarded as the proper characterization of our efforts.

And this brings us to our second question: What is the basis for the assumed community of interest between professional schools of engineering, law, and business?

From the point of view of purely subjective criteria derived from an attempt to define the subject matter of the several so-called professional schools there is, I suppose, little doubt that of the five professional schools most commonly recognized in the American university, including colleges of medicine and divinity as well as the three we are now discussing, the latter possess a special community of interest not recognized in the other two comprising the group.

Someone has half facetiously remarked that whereas the medical school has as its chief task the adjustment of man in his biological environment the divinity school is concerned chiefly with the adjustment of man to his environment in the hereafter. If we recognize this statement as being not more than a half truth, if truth it be at all, and grant that the biological adjustment of mankind sometimes involves consideration of technological, legal, and economic factors, if we grant also that in this day of the social gospel theological doctrine is inseparably linked with a vast institutional structure requiring adjustment in the technological, legal, and economic

environment of this world, there is still probably little doubt but that these relationships are not so impelling as are the relationships existing between technology, law, and business themselves. In any event it is to the latter three that our attention is to be directed in this discussion.

With respect to these latter disciplines, subjectively considered, the community of interest is so obvious as to require little comment. Here such miscellaneous phrases as transfer of skill machines, technological unemployment, patent rights, overhead costs, regulation of hours of work, safety provisions, codes of fair competition, social planning, and engineering standards which could be enumerated almost without end attest this close relationship of engineering, law, and business.

Viewed more objectively in terms of a job analysis of the tasks of modern engineers, lawyers, and business men, the answer is the same. Engineers are continually called upon to make decisions involving almost as complete an understanding of economics and legal regulations as of physics and chemistry. Lawyers function in a world requiring appreciation of technological limitations and business policies as well as legal standards. Business management, essentially a coordinating science, must be based upon sound knowledge of technology and legal institutions as well as value and price. Indeed, these relationships have become so hopelessly intertwined that it is no longer possible to predict with certainty where one trained in any one of these disciplines will ultimately find his task in the social structure. Those trained in business may rarely secure employment in engineering or law for obvious reasons, but the legally or technologically trained man often later finds himself in a position of responsibility in business.

We come now to the third question which was raised at the beginning of this discussion: How and to what extent is this community of interest to be recognized in the educational policies of those responsible for providing formal professional training in the several disciplines under consideration?

It appears that there are at least five methods which may perhaps be employed in meeting this issue.

The first of these which I shall mention pertains not to the professional program itself but rather to the pre-professional years. There is need, it seems to me, of insistence by the professional schools upon a common background of training which will lay proper emphasis upon the complex interrelationships of the modern setting in which all so-called learned professions function.

I do not believe that it is incorrect to assume that any professional school worthy of the name in any of these fields must of necessity require of its students an adequate general educational background beyond the level of secondary education. Whether this common educational program is to be administered under the control of the professional school faculties as a part of an extended undergraduate or combined undergraduate-graduate program or whether it is to be required as a prerequisite for entrance in the professional school does not seem to me to be the paramount issue. Both administrative plans have their advantages. Where it is administered by the professional faculty itself there is, of course, opportunity to insure that it shall be the kind of general education which in the opinion of the professional faculty lays a sound foundation for advanced work of a really professional character.

On the other hand, under such auspices it is naturally to be expected that each professional school will assume responsibility for its own neophytes only and in their professional zeal may seek to introduce too early their specialized techniques. To do so inevitably leads to perversion of objectives of the general educational program. If, in contrast, this field is left to the faculty of liberal arts such tendencies toward early specialization may possibly be avoided, thus forestalling what in my opinion is one of the most serious weaknesses in present day professional training in all three of these fields.

Neither does it follow, I believe, that to delegate this task to the faculty of liberal arts necessarily places one in the position of insisting that the proper place of all professional train-

ing is at the postgraduate level as at present defined. There is nothing sacred about the four-year college of liberal arts. Indeed there is some evidence that with proper reorientation of secondary and junior college curricula the foundation of a truly liberal education might conceivably be laid in considerably less time than is now supposed to be required. Whatever be the outcome of this controversy at present being aired in American educational circles the conclusion will, it seems to me, determine the proper point of departure for training of truly professional character.

No matter under whose auspices the background of general education is developed, if it can be made to include within its scope broad surveys of human knowledge—surveys not achieving mere sophistication as survey courses so often do but sound appreciation of the complexities and interrelations in modern life of technology, economics, and government—there is some hope of building professional training upon a surer footing.

The second means of fostering satisfactory relationships among the professional schools that I wish to suggest is the consolidation wherever possible of courses on the professional level in fields of overlapping subject matter. Whereas the first proposal is exclusively applicable on the pre-professional level this second suggestion clearly calls for cooperation concerning curricular requirements within the professional schools themselves.

How far such consolidation can profitably be carried without sacrificing the distinctive characteristics of the several professional disciplines is a hard question. All of us can immediately recall well-known examples of this cooperative relationship ranging from a completely consolidated professional program of extensive proportions as between engineering and business, for example, to cooperation in offering a single course, as in industrial management, or permission and encouragement to the students of one professional school to choose in fulfillment of electives some courses in the other professional schools.

While cooperative ventures of this nature no doubt are theoretically well grounded it is my impression that they have not universally turned out well in practice. Like many another device of dual purpose there is likely to be the feeling that the combined program serves neither end very well. One must dominate, and thus offerings in one or the other of the two fields if not superficial are at least in danger of presentation from a distinctly biased point of view unless instructors and administration of exceptional professional breadth are available.

This problem of developing a faculty with broad understanding of inter-professional relationships and at the same time maintaining technical competence in some fairly narrow field of specialization on the part of each individual staff member is perhaps one of the most important administrative issues of the professional school. Which brings me to the third point which I would suggest, namely, the desirability of providing representation upon the faculties of the various professional schools by men competently trained in the subject matter of the other related professions. One perhaps rarely finds engineers and business experts on the faculties of law schools or men trained in law and business on the faculty of engineering but the practice of drawing men trained in law or engineering into the faculties of business schools has been fairly common. Whether there is need for as broad an outlook in the more technical training of law and engineering as in business may well be questioned. There would appear to be, at any rate, in the typical business faculty in spite of its youth and lack of prestige a versatility and catholicity of interest not always found in the instructional staffs of the other professional schools.

Desirable, if not indeed indispensable—at least in the school of business—as such broad professional representation in faculty personnel may be, it is perhaps a development in the direction of self-containment rather than cooperation with other professional schools on the campus. This leads me to my fourth point in suggesting as a supplementary measure

some degree of cooperation among the various professional schools in arranging for interchange professorships or the loaning of staff members from one school to another in the interest of better presentation of particular points of view or subject matter than could be accomplished by the school's own instructional staff.

As an example of such cooperation I wish to cite but a single instance growing out of the experience of the school of business which I represent in providing instructional personnel in accounting for the law school in the same university for the past several years. It is an arrangement which has been eminently satisfactory to both schools in that it has resulted in collaboration between members of the two faculties in the development of instructional materials in accounting adapted to the needs of students of law, has encouraged the law faculty to view sympathetically the possibility of extending beyond its initial commitment the training in accounting offered to its own students, and has for these same students opened up new vistas of training which prompt them in increasing numbers to apply for admission in other courses in the school of business.

The fifth and final method of cooperation between the professional schools which I shall venture to suggest is the exploration of the possibility of organizing seminars or institutes at an advanced, perhaps postgraduate, level, participated in by the faculties of all these schools and open only to those students who have demonstrated in their professional training that they have real potentialities for leadership in their chosen professions. How far such cooperative research may profitably be carried cannot, of course, be determined without much further study. It would seem, however, to be not unreasonable to suppose that in this day of wide interest in such questions as social security, economic planning, and regulation of business in the public interest, all of which have at the same time technological, legal, and economic ramifications, there must be many complex social problems which could profitably be made the subject of cooperative explora-

tion by the faculties and students of all three of these schools. Our present fumbling efforts with these problems are often attributed to a lack of broad leadership. But if our professional schools cannot bring themselves to look beyond the bounds of narrow professionalism where, pray, is the training for this broad leadership to be found?

I realize that what I am suggesting is a somewhat unusual if not indeed visionary expedient. There are few precedents, and to formulate suitable problems and effective procedures for investigation would be no easy task. Only whole-hearted cooperation, sustained enthusiasm, and zeal for scientific exploration beyond their professional boundaries by all three schools could save such a plan from dissolution. But granted all these I am sure you will agree that the result might be a striking object lesson in how professional boundaries break down under the impact of concrete problems. In this day when engineers are often accused of too scant regard for human values, when lawyers sometimes seem more bent on magnifying legal technicalities than aiding in formulating sound social policy, when not infrequently business men, out of lack of understanding of the technological forces which are shaping modern life and out of indifference to the public interest, are contributing unaware to the undermining of the very system by which business lives, I submit that such an educational detour might prove a very revealing experience to young men destined for future leadership in these professions.

In closing, I wish to raise the question as to whether in pointing to the need for cooperation by these professional schools, first, in broadening the base upon which education of truly professional character must rest, second, in fostering through inter-faculty and inter-curricular contacts a better appreciation of the essential community of interest in these professions and, third, in developing at a high level seminars and institutes cutting across the subject matter of all three, we are not placing our fingers as it were upon the chief weakness in present day professional training. Obviously, our collegiate schools of business cannot speak for schools of law

and engineering though they along with us have much in common. But as for our schools of business, is it not true that unless in the future we can do more than train the routine workers of business we cannot well avoid the charge of narrow vocationalism? If we concern ourselves chiefly with specialized training in techniques and procedures of business we need not be surprised if we are accused of failure to maintain the status requisite for continued membership in a university supposedly dedicated to the higher learning—whatever that vague term may mean.

I do not feel that we need to be particularly apologetic concerning the accomplishments of collegiate education for business thus far. I believe that the record in comparison with that of other professional schools is distinctly favorable, considering the fact that our oldest graduates are in most instances not yet much past middle age. I am even not particularly humbled by the feeling, happily less prevalent than formerly in university circles, that the school of business is a sort of half-breed stepchild of the department of economics, scarcely fit for association in the chaste environment of a community of scholars bent on pursuing the liberal arts. I do feel, however, that there is need for broadening of our program by means such as I have proposed in advocating more intensive cultivation of common ground occupied by the professional schools of business, engineering, and law.

If we are able to do this it does not require too great a stretch of the imagination to conceive that instead of being an offshoot of economics our professional degree may some day be regarded as the logical prerequisite for advanced study and research in economics, thereby lending to the enrichment of that seemingly somewhat bewildered discipline. What is more important still, we may with this broadened horizon and sound scholarship begin to make some contribution to the development of business leadership which is at present so sorely needed.

The 1936 Psychological Examination for College Freshmen

By L. L. THURSTONE and THELMA GWINN THURSTONE

THIS report for 1936 contains norms for the thirteenth annual edition of the American Council on Education *Psychological Examination for College Freshmen*. It is based on the reports submitted by 304 colleges, and includes all those received by March 15, 1937. The total number of students concerned is 66,111, only scores of freshmen being included. The 1935 tabulation of norms included the results from only 266 institutions. The number of test blanks ordered from the American Council on Education by 562 colleges was 209,969 to March 10, 1937.

The first table contains the names of all the colleges from which scores have been received. The order is alphabetical.

The second table contains the norms for each college listed in order from the highest median score to the lowest. The table shows the rank number, the number of students, and the three quartile points for each college. Perhaps a better index of the standing of a college is obtained by finding the percentile rank of its median score in Table III, which gives gross score norms for the entire group of schools reporting. Comparisons with any of the other tables showing gross score norms may also be made in this way.

Tables IV to VIII contain norms for the five separate tests of the examination. The separate test norms are based on such a large number of scores that it is not necessary to compare the gross scores of this group with the total group.

Table IX shows a comparison of schools of different size. Since the number of colleges in some of the groups is small, the differences do not seem reliable, and we should conclude that size is not important in determining the test scores of students.

Table X presents a comparison of private and public

schools. The difference is in the expected direction since the group of public institutions contains a large number of normal schools and junior colleges and also because the colleges supported by public funds cannot set up the rigid entrance requirements possible in the private schools.

Table XI presents a comparison of norms for coeducational schools, schools for men, and schools for women.

Table XII contains norms for three groups of colleges: junior colleges, teachers colleges, and four-year colleges.

Table I

UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES SUBMITTING TEST RECORDS

Adelphi College, Garden City, N. Y.	Battle Creek College, Battle Creek, Mich.
Alabama College, Montevallo, Ala.	Bay City Junior College, Bay City, Mich.
Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Auburn, Ala.	Belhaven College, Jackson, Mich.
Alberta Normal School, Edmonton, Alberta, Can.	Beloit College, Beloit, Wisconsin
Albion College, Albion, Mich.	Bennett College, Greensboro, N. C.
Alfred University, Alfred, N. Y.	Bennington College, Bennington, Vt.
Allegheny College, Meadville, Pa.	Bethany College, Bethany, W. Va.
Alma College, Alma, Mich.	Bethel College, Newton, Kan.
American University, Washington, D. C.	Birmingham-Southern College, Birmingham, Ala.
Antioch College, Yellow Springs, Ohio	Blackburn College, Carlinville, Ill.
Arizona State Teachers College, Flagstaff, Ariz.	Blue Mountain College, Blue Mountain, Miss.
Arkansas Polytechnic College, Russellville, Ark.	Bouve-Boston School of Physical Education, Boston, Mass.
Armour Institute of Technology, Chicago, Ill.	Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Me.
Babson Institute, Babson Park, Mass.	Bradley Polytechnic Institute, Peoria, Ill.
Baker University, Baldwin City, Kan.	Briar Cliff Junior College, Sioux City, Iowa
Bakersfield Junior College, Bakersfield, Calif.	Brooklyn College, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Baltimore College of Commerce, Y.M.C.A., Baltimore, Md.	Bucknell University, Lewisburg, Pa.
	Buena Vista College, Storm Lake, Iowa
	Carleton College, Northfield, Minn.
	Carroll College, Helena, Mont.

- Carroll College, Waukesha, Wis.
 Carson-Newman College, Jefferson City, Tenn.
 Case School of Applied Science, Cleveland, Ohio
 Catholic Junior College, Grand Rapids, Mich.
 Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C.
 Centenary College, Shreveport, La.
 Central College, Fayette, Mo.
 Central State Teachers College, Mt. Pleasant, Mich.
 Central Y.M.C.A. College, Chicago, Ill.
 Centre College of Kentucky, Danville, Ky.
 Chevy Chase School, Washington, D. C.
 Child Education Foundation, New York City.
 The Citadel (The Military College of South Carolina), Charleston, S. C.
 Clark University, Worcester, Mass.
 Coe College, Cedar Rapids, Iowa
 Coker College, Hartsville, S. C.
 Colby College, Waterville, Me.
 Colgate University, Hamilton, N. Y.
 College of Emporia, Emporia, Kan.
 College of Idaho, Caldwell, Idaho
 College Misericordia, Dallas, Pa.
 College of the City of New York, New York City
 College of Mt. St. Vincent, New York City
 College of Notre Dame of Maryland, Baltimore, Md.
 College of Puget Sound, Tacoma, Wash.
 College of St. Elizabeth, Convent Station, N. J.
 College of St. Francis, Joliet, Ill.
 College of St. Scholastica, Duluth, Minn.
 College of William and Mary, Norfolk, Va.
 College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, Va.
 Colorado State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, Fort Collins, Colo.
 Colorado State College of Education at Montana Deaconess Hospital, Great Falls, Mont.
 Colorado Woman's College, Denver, Colo.
 Columbia Bible College, Columbia, S. C.
 Connecticut College, New London, Conn.
 Converse College, Spartanburg, S. C.
 Cornell College, Mt. Vernon, Iowa
 Dartmouth College, Hanover, N. H.
 Delta State Teachers College, Cleveland, Miss.
 Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pa.
 Dodge City Junior College, Dodge City, Kan.
 Dowling College, Des Moines, Iowa
 Drew University (Brothers College), Madison, N. J.
 Duluth Junior College, Duluth, Minn.
 D'Youville College, Buffalo, N. Y.
 Earlham College, Richmond, Ind.
 Eastern Illinois State Teachers College, Charleston, Ill.
 Elmhurst College, Elmhurst, Ill.
 Emmanuel Missionary College, Berrien Springs, Mich.
 Emory Junior College, Oxford, Ga.
 Emory Junior College, Valdosta, Ga.
 Emory University, Emory University, Ga.

- Erskine College, Due West, S. C.
Eureka College, Eureka, Ill.
Evansville College, Evansville, Ind.
Fenn College, Cleveland, Ohio
Florida State College for Women,
Tallahassee, Fla.
Fontbonne College, St. Louis, Mo.
Franklin College of Indiana, Frank-
lin, Ind.
Franklin and Marshall College,
Lancaster, Pa.
Fresno State College, Fresno, Calif.
Gale Junior College, Galesville,
Wis.
Gallaudet College, Washington,
D. C.
George Washington University,
Washington, D. C.
Georgetown University, Washing-
ton, D. C.
Georgia State College for Women,
Milledgeville, Ga.
Georgia State Woman's College,
Valdosta, Ga.
Georgian Court College, Lakewood,
N. J.
Gettysburg College, Gettysburg, Pa.
Goshen College, Goshen, Ind.
Graceland College, Lamoni, Iowa
Great Falls Normal College, Great
Falls, Mont.
Green Mountain Junior College,
Poultney, Vt.
Grinnell College, Grinnell, Iowa
Hamline University, St. Paul, Minn.
Hannibal-LaGrange College, Hanni-
bal, Mo.
Hanover College, Hanover, Ind.
Hendrix College, Conway, Ark.
Hiram College, Hiram, Ohio
Hobart College, Geneva, N. Y.
Hood College, Frederick, Md.
Hutchinson Junior College, Hutch-
inson, Kan.
Illinois College, Jacksonville, Ill.
Immaculata College, Immaculata,
Pa.
Indiana State Teachers College,
Terre Haute, Ind.
Iowa Wesleyan College, Mt. Pleas-
ant, Iowa
James Millikin University, Decatur,
Ill.
Judson College, Marion, Ala.
Junior College of Connecticut,
Bridgeport, Conn.
Kalamazoo College, Kalamazoo,
Mich.
Keuka College, Keuka Park, N. Y.
Knox College, Galesburg, Ill.
Lafayette College, Easton, Pa.
Lake Erie College, Painesville, Ohio
Lander College, Greenwood, S. C.
LaSalle College, Philadelphia, Pa.
Lawrence College, Appleton, Wis.
Lebanon Valley College, Annville,
Pa.
Lewiston State Normal School,
Lewiston, Idaho
Lincoln College, Lincoln, Ill.
Los Angeles Junior College, Los
Angeles, Calif.
Louisiana State University, Baton
Rouge, La.
Louisville Municipal College, Louis-
ville, Ky.
Lower Columbia Junior College,
Longview, Wash.
Lynchburg College, Lynchburg, Va.
Lyons Township Junior College,
LaGrange, Ill.
MacMurray College for Women,
Jacksonville, Ill.
Marion Institute, Marion, Ala.
Marquette University, Milwaukee,
Wis.
Mary Baldwin College, Staunton,
Va.

- Maryland Normal School, Bowie, Md.
 Maryland State Teachers College, Frostburg, Md.
 Maryland State Teachers College, Towson, Md.
 Marywood College, Scranton, Pa.
 Massachusetts State College, Amherst, Mass.
 McPherson College, McPherson, Kan.
 Mercyhurst College, Erie, Pa.
 Millsaps College, Jackson, Miss.
 Missouri Valley College, Marshall, Mo.
 Modesto Junior College, Modesto, Calif.
 Monmouth College, Monmouth, Ill.
 Montana State College, Bozeman, Mont.
 Montana State Normal College, Dillon, Mont.
 Monticello Seminary, Godfrey, Ill.
 Moravian Seminary and College for Women, Bethlehem, Pa.
 Morningside College, Sioux City, Iowa
 Morton Junior College, Cicero, Ill.
 Mount Mercy College, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Mount St. Joseph College, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Mount St. Scholastica College, Atchison, Kan.
 Muhlenberg College, Allentown, Pa.
 National College of Education, Evanston, Ill.
 Nazareth College, Rochester, N. Y.
 New Haven Y.M.C.A. Junior College, New Haven, Conn.
 New Jersey State Normal School, Jersey City, N. J.
 New Jersey State Normal School, Newark, N. J.
 New River State College, Montgomery, W. Va.
 North Central College, Naperville, Ill.
 Northern Illinois State Teachers College, DeKalb, Ill.
 Notre Dame College, South Euclid, Ohio
 Notre Dame College of Staten Island, Staten Island, N. Y.
 Notre Dame Junior College, St. Louis, Mo.
 Oak Park Junior College, Oak Park, Ill.
 Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio
 Oregon State College, Corvallis, Ore.
 Ottawa University, Ottawa, Kan.
 Pacific University, Forest Grove, Ore.
 Park College, Parkville, Mo.
 Parsons College, Fairfield, Iowa
 Pennsylvania College for Women, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Phillips University, Enid, Okla.
 Pine Manor Junior College, Wellesley, Mass.
 Port Huron Junior College, Port Huron, Mich.
 Randolph-Macon Woman's College, Lynchburg, Va.
 Reed College, Portland, Ore.
 Regis College, Denver, Colo.
 Rhode Island State College, Kingston, R. I.
 Rollins College, Winter Park, Fla.
 Rosary College, River Forest, Ill.
 Rosemont College, Rosemont, Pa.
 Russell Sage College, Troy, N. Y.
 St. Francis Xavier College for Women, Chicago, Ill.
 St. Helen's Hall Junior College, Portland, Ore.

- St. Joseph College, West Hartford, Conn.
St. Joseph College for Women, Brooklyn, N. Y.
St. Mary College, Leavenworth, Kan.
St. Mary's College, Notre Dame, Ind.
St. Mary-of-the-Woods College, St. Mary-of-the-Woods, Ind.
St. Meinrad Seminary, St. Meinrad, Ind.
St. Thomas College, Scranton, Pa.
Salem College, Winston-Salem, N.C.
Santa Rosa Junior College, Santa Rosa, Calif.
Scranton-Keystone Junior College, La Plume, Pa.
Seattle Pacific College, Seattle, Wash.
Seton Hill College, Greensburg, Pa.
Shenandoah College, Dayton, Va.
Shepherd State Teachers College, Shepherdstown, W. Va.
Shorter College, Rome, Ga.
Simmons College, Boston, Mass.
Simpson College, Indianola, Iowa
Sioux Falls College, Sioux Falls, S. D.
Skidmore College, Saratoga Springs, N. Y.
South Dakota State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, Brookings, S. D.
South Georgia Teachers College, Collegeboro, Ga.
Southern Oregon State Normal School, Ashland, Ore.
Southern Union College, Wadley, Ala.
Southwestern, Memphis, Tenn.
Southwestern College, Winfield, Kan.
Southwestern Louisiana Institute, Lafayette, La.
Spring Hill College, Spring Hill, Ala.
State College of Agriculture and Engineering, Raleigh, N. C.
State College of Washington, Pullman, Wash.
State Teachers College, Mankato, Minn.
State Teachers College, Memphis, Tenn.
State Teachers College, Troy, Ala.
State Teachers College, Valley City, N. D.
State Teachers College, West Chester, Pa.
State Teachers College, Winona, Minn.
State Teachers College and State Normal School, Trenton, N. J.
State University of Montana, Missoula, Mont.
Sweet Briar College, Sweet Briar, Va.
Texas Wesleyan College, Fort Worth, Tex.
Thiel College, Greenville, Pa.
Trinity College, Hartford, Conn.
Trinity College, Washington, D. C.
Tufts College (Engineering School), Tufts College, Mass.
Tulane University of Louisiana, New Orleans, La.
Tusculum College, Greeneville, Tenn.
University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta, Can.
University of Akron, Akron, Ohio
University of Buffalo, Buffalo, N. Y.
University of Chattanooga, Chattanooga, Tenn.
University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

- University of Colorado, Boulder, Colo.
- University of Delaware Woman's College, Newark, Del.
- University of Denver, Denver, Colo.
- University of Detroit, Detroit, Mich.
- University of Dubuque, Dubuque, Iowa
- University of Idaho, Moscow, Idaho
- University of Louisville, Louisville, Ky.
- University of Louisville (Speed Scientific School), Louisville, Ky.
- University of Maine, Orono, Me.
- University of Maryland, College Park, Md.
- University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.
- University of New Hampshire, Durham, N. H.
- University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, N. M.
- University of Oregon, Eugene, Ore.
- University of Redlands, Redlands, Calif.
- University of Rochester, Rochester, N. Y.
- University of South Carolina, Columbia, S. C.
- University of Tulsa, Tulsa, Okla.
- University of Vermont, Burlington, Vt.
- University Preparatory School and Junior College, Tonkawa, Okla.
- Ursinus College, Collegeville, Pa.
- Ursuline College, New Orleans, La.
- Valparaiso University, Valparaiso, Ind.
- Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn.
- Virginia Intermont College, Bristol, Va.
- Washburn College, Topeka, Kan.
- Washington College, Chestertown, Md.
- Washington and Lee University, Lexington, Va.
- Washington State Normal School, Bellingham, Wash.
- Wayne University, Detroit, Mich.
- Webster College, Webster Groves, Mo.
- Wells College, Aurora-on-Cayuga, N. Y.
- West Virginia University, Morgantown, W. Va.
- Westbrook Seminary and Junior College, Portland, Me.
- Western Illinois State Teachers College, Macomb, Ill.
- Western State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Mich.
- Westminster College, Fulton, Mo.
- Westminster College, New Wilmington, Pa.
- Willamette University, Salem, Ore.
- William Smith College, Geneva, N. Y.
- Williamsport Dickinson Seminary, Williamsport, Pa.
- Wilson College, Chambersburg, Pa.
- Winthrop College, Rock Hill, S. C.
- Wofford College, Spartanburg, S. C.
- Woman's Hospital of Philadelphia, Philadelphia, Pa.
- Woods, Miss, Kindergarten-Primary Training School, Minneapolis, Minn.
- Xavier University, Cincinnati, Ohio
- Yakima Valley Junior College, Yakima, Wash.
- Yankton College, Yankton, S. D.
- York College, York, Neb.
- Yuba County Junior College, Marysville, Calif.

Table II

SCORES OF INDIVIDUAL COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES BY
CODE NUMBER

<i>Institution code number</i>	<i>Number of students</i>	<i>Gross Scores</i>		
		<i>\bar{X}_1</i>	<i>Median</i>	<i>\bar{X}_2</i>
1	96	218.18	252.00	280.00
2	626	206.29	245.36	283.80
3	355	206.70	243.65	273.81
4	172	212.00	240.00	270.71
5	314	206.73	235.20	270.24
6	1995	202.74	234.53	265.61
7	175	205.28	233.00	270.23
8	95	206.79	230.36	257.50
9	633	192.77	230.28	261.25
10	120	194.44	230.00	276.67
11	82	192.50	227.78	270.56
12	258	194.17	224.74	257.19
13	151	178.86	223.95	248.06
14	150	195.00	223.85	254.23
15	334	188.54	223.33	253.41
16	109	173.75	223.18	254.17
17	45	184.17	223.00	259.38
18	306	188.13	222.96	255.80
19	146	192.27	222.50	262.14
20	704	188.55	221.52	246.84
21	241	188.54	220.89	257.95
22	366	184.42	220.00	253.65
23	221	187.84	219.25	250.58
24	73	180.83	219.17	271.50
25	124	180.00	218.57	260.00
26	191	175.23	217.08	256.83
27	1617	180.18	215.00	251.60
28	185	171.88	212.69	247.34
29	181	168.50	209.50	243.75
30	49	176.56	207.50	244.32
31	117	172.05	205.50	251.25
32	260	169.41	205.50	239.09
33	285	167.21	204.17	244.31
34	64	172.00	202.50	247.50
35	356	159.60	202.50	235.00
36	61	137.50	202.14	231.88
37	68	160.00	202.00	235.00
38	199	167.83	201.79	241.32
39	260	169.00	201.58	238.57
40	405	165.63	201.35	239.87
41	83	167.19	201.25	244.50
42	76	171.25	201.00	240.00
43	125	161.04	200.71	229.79
44	72	160.00	200.00	235.71
45	80	166.00	198.75	235.00
46	178	155.00	198.33	230.63

<i>Institution code number</i>	<i>Number of students</i>	<i>Gross Scores</i>		
		<i>Q₁</i>	<i>Median</i>	<i>Q₃</i>
47	161	162.25	198.06	233.13
48	79	149.38	197.86	240.42
49	266	162.19	197.20	238.68
50	390	159.32	196.92	235.53
51	146	162.50	196.67	237.73
52	42	128.75	196.67	221.25
53	139	159.75	196.25	228.06
54	47	152.50	196.25	234.17
55	191	155.23	195.75	231.88
56	112	158.00	195.71	234.00
57	145	161.61	195.63	250.94
58	53	152.50	195.00	229.38
59	40	150.00	195.00	240.00
60	71	152.92	194.17	225.63
61	108	161.11	194.00	236.67
62	59	149.38	193.57	223.13
63	68	170.91	193.33	237.50
64	22	167.50	193.33	227.50
65	114	159.50	193.33	237.50
66	318	157.94	193.10	225.77
67	51	155.50	193.00	228.33
68	271	154.56	192.65	234.46
69	55	154.38	192.50	222.50
70	146	164.06	191.11	227.19
71	158	159.62	191.11	229.38
72	79	149.38	190.83	227.50
73	278	152.81	190.43	228.54
74	146	160.31	190.00	228.08
75	225	163.45	189.78	222.29
76	29	156.25	189.00	227.50
77	42	171.25	188.75	223.75
78	134	145.00	188.75	235.00
79	87	144.58	188.75	251.25
80	197	161.13	188.53	215.97
81	272	160.00	188.00	230.56
82	77	156.50	187.73	212.50
83	110	149.50	187.50	222.27
84	113	145.42	187.50	227.19
85	116	142.50	187.50	220.00
86	203	151.94	187.31	229.38
87	34	145.00	186.67	216.25
88	40	143.33	186.67	220.00
89	227	147.88	186.59	223.28
90	267	142.88	186.33	228.83
91	172	150.71	186.00	232.00
92	74	139.17	186.00	227.00
93	106	144.38	185.71	236.25
94	106	148.13	185.45	228.13
95	647	151.85	185.14	218.24
96	164	155.33	185.00	222.94
97	19	148.75	185.00	202.50

Institution code number	Number of students	Gross Scores		
		\bar{Q}_1	Median	\bar{Q}_3
98	109	145.83	185.00	235.94
99	143	145.23	185.00	222.25
100	289	148.47	184.77	236.09
101	184	142.73	184.67	231.25
102	148	142.22	184.29	227.27
103	156	141.11	184.29	226.67
104	62	127.50	183.33	228.33
105	256	150.00	182.63	206.67
106	196	138.57	182.50	235.00
107	341	141.07	182.41	220.88
108	163	154.56	182.27	217.71
109	207	144.75	182.08	213.25
110	172	142.50	181.82	225.29
111	15	153.75	181.67	232.50
112	76	147.50	181.67	230.00
113	486	147.74	181.50	219.76
114	73	147.81	181.25	222.50
115	51	139.50	181.25	224.50
116	69	141.56	181.00	211.25
117	204	145.00	180.83	223.13
118	95	142.50	180.63	221.56
119	451	143.46	180.47	215.94
120	56	148.00	180.00	223.33
121	156	132.22	180.00	214.44
122	613	145.21	179.71	221.32
123	203	142.50	179.62	212.95
124	211	149.11	179.32	214.46
125	100	135.71	179.09	208.33
126	108	136.67	178.89	220.00
127	168	139.09	178.82	220.00
128	226	134.33	178.67	216.07
129	130	130.50	178.18	217.86
130	985	141.53	178.16	214.96
131	153	155.14	177.81	226.25
132	215	143.19	177.75	210.17
133	141	142.25	177.73	215.50
134	131	133.44	177.73	213.13
135	513	145.42	177.50	219.17
136	47	143.75	177.50	213.13
137	348	140.00	177.31	214.12
138	745	138.78	177.16	219.27
139	146	137.22	177.00	231.50
140	267	136.14	177.00	211.32
141	118	144.50	176.67	204.50
142	70	141.88	176.67	231.67
143	86	138.75	176.67	221.67
144	90	131.67	176.67	202.50
145	89	140.31	176.50	213.93
146	99	141.88	176.11	217.81
147	64	146.67	176.00	201.00
148	39	123.75	175.00	214.17

<i>Institution code number</i>	<i>Number of students</i>	<i>Gross Scores</i>		
		<i>Q₁</i>	<i>Median</i>	<i>Q₃</i>
149	581	136.64	174.87	210.91
150	335	134.17	174.81	227.08
151	188	134.29	174.12	215.83
152	425	138.01	173.79	216.83
153	783	134.17	173.64	209.59
154	168	131.00	173.33	219.09
155	258	137.92	173.13	215.83
156	70	159.06	172.86	191.25
157	562	135.86	172.86	207.86
158	668	136.59	172.83	212.35
159	572	134.33	172.56	212.00
160	47	141.88	172.50	215.63
161	205	130.21	172.50	214.84
162	113	141.14	172.14	209.69
163	110	139.29	172.00	207.50
164	1038	145.56	171.47	215.07
165	104	133.33	171.43	220.00
166	125	140.50	171.25	211.75
167	119	124.75	171.07	198.41
168	47	136.25	171.00	208.93
169	133	133.54	171.00	220.75
170	105	124.72	170.42	204.32
171	427	131.38	170.14	211.02
172	226	132.92	170.00	218.33
173	70	118.75	170.00	204.17
174	1294	133.43	169.54	206.74
175	204	137.78	169.50	215.00
176	91	132.92	169.38	200.36
177	129	138.93	168.50	216.79
178	166	132.78	168.46	204.38
179	135	135.28	168.33	214.06
180	219	135.74	168.16	211.73
181	541	132.80	168.03	205.98
182	279	134.31	167.80	203.28
183	188	132.86	167.50	214.29
184	202	129.12	167.50	200.45
185	35	123.75	167.50	198.13
186	35	138.75	167.00	196.25
187	216	124.67	167.00	203.00
188	36	117.50	166.67	225.00
189	149	131.88	166.56	211.94
190	79	135.36	166.43	230.83
191	275	129.81	166.25	217.88
192	49	126.25	166.25	199.50
193	429	132.36	166.03	206.25
194	238	131.04	165.71	220.56
195	194	126.11	165.71	199.06
196	171	133.39	165.67	202.81
197	130	131.88	165.56	205.63
198	178	128.75	165.45	202.08
199	179	136.73	165.42	208.06

Institution code number	Number of students	Gross Scores		
		Q_1	Median	Q_3
200	16	140.00	165.00	215.00
201	20	140.00	165.00	200.00
202	81	125.42	165.00	204.38
203	116	121.11	164.44	225.00
204	132	130.00	164.29	206.00
205	81	127.50	164.17	200.83
206	241	122.25	163.44	211.46
207	76	126.00	163.33	205.00
208	107	119.50	163.13	202.50
209	98	126.43	163.00	195.00
210	456	131.43	162.57	198.39
211	2425	126.05	162.54	202.13
212	53	118.75	162.50	223.75
213	91	123.50	162.27	193.25
214	83	124.58	162.14	204.50
215	98	131.67	161.43	195.00
216	97	124.64	161.36	211.25
217	43	138.75	161.25	210.50
218	605	127.35	161.00	197.23
219	89	120.42	161.00	199.69
220	131	119.17	160.71	205.63
221	30	120.25	160.34	203.24
222	341	117.21	159.17	197.98
223	103	119.69	159.00	193.13
224	63	109.17	158.75	182.50
225	101	132.95	157.50	197.50
226	68	127.50	157.50	205.00
227	35	116.88	157.50	207.50
228	784	123.96	157.14	195.00
229	145	117.50	157.08	207.92
230	158	129.55	156.88	195.00
231	96	130.00	156.67	196.67
232	1172	122.77	156.56	196.08
233	101	124.50	156.11	181.50
234	394	114.35	155.42	195.95
235	416	120.00	155.19	193.00
236	300	118.82	154.21	192.50
237	84	131.25	154.00	201.67
238	176	115.63	154.00	197.00
239	106	117.22	153.75	189.17
240	185	121.41	153.50	200.68
241	137	124.38	153.13	197.50
242	141	114.64	152.69	193.50
243	225	120.89	152.33	192.50
244	333	118.10	151.84	193.52
245	68	120.00	151.43	182.00
246	63	120.94	150.71	180.63
247	441	110.54	148.91	192.50
248	51	125.50	148.75	195.63
249	141	118.75	148.75	189.50
250	51	109.38	148.75	183.13

Institution code number	Number of students	Gross Scores		
		Q ₁	Median	Q ₃
251	128	107.50	148.57	191.25
252	111	115.28	148.50	204.17
253	101	122.25	148.33	189.50
254	117	112.50	148.33	182.29
255	239	121.63	148.20	194.77
256	103	120.68	148.13	182.50
257	194	120.88	147.83	184.33
258	155	112.19	147.81	185.83
259	62	121.00	147.50	187.50
260	681	110.54	147.21	187.73
261	79	113.50	146.88	177.81
262	65	100.50	146.88	178.61
263	195	116.50	146.25	184.06
264	208	108.89	145.63	190.00
265	111	102.50	145.50	175.42
266	259	107.08	145.31	192.25
267	154	116.50	145.00	185.00
268	317	116.10	144.81	183.75
269	359	109.48	144.14	182.98
270	37	114.17	143.75	169.50
271	95	112.92	143.00	190.50
272	88	107.50	142.86	185.00
273	479	109.92	142.57	182.79
274	87	105.83	142.50	186.50
275	354	95.68	141.43	187.00
276	163	109.64	140.71	180.36
277	151	108.13	140.38	170.28
278	259	108.19	139.21	174.46
279	1654	102.91	138.83	180.06
280	227	101.09	138.64	188.06
281	91	109.38	138.13	169.17
282	106	100.63	138.00	189.17
283	93	106.56	137.86	179.17
284	120	111.11	136.67	190.00
285	92	97.50	136.67	182.00
286	99	111.50	136.50	174.50
287	113	98.17	134.17	165.94
288	158	98.33	134.00	185.83
289	455	95.90	133.57	172.50
290	143	94.17	133.57	173.75
291	514	97.57	133.03	176.90
292	94	102.50	131.67	170.83
293	92	95.00	128.57	161.67
294	100	96.67	128.00	181.67
295	118	92.92	127.69	160.71
296	70	86.43	122.50	168.33
297	436	87.65	117.22	158.15
298	286	79.72	115.29	156.25
299	197	78.28	109.38	142.50
300	44	85.00	103.33	120.00
301	162	79.06	102.14	137.31

302	53	81.56	99.29	125.50
303	14	65.00	90.00	125.00
304	79	51.07	69.00	101.56

Table III
GROSS SCORES

(Norms based on records of 65,737 students in 304 colleges)

Scores	Frequency			Percentile		
	Men	Women	Total ¹	Men	Women	Total
0-9	2		2	.000	.000	.000
10-19	1	6	8	.000	.000	.000
20-29	22	20	49	.000	.000	.000
30-39	67	39	120	.002	.002	.002
40-49	143	93	278	.006	.004	.005
50-59	253	167	472	.013	.010	.010
60-69	373	278	758	.024	.018	.020
70-79	577	415	1125	.041	.032	.034
80-89	778	508	1471	.065	.051	.054
90-99	944	717	1872	.095	.075	.079
100-109	1133	885	2289	.132	.107	.111
110-119	1353	1041	2747	.176	.145	.149
120-129	1547	1231	3174	.228	.190	.194
130-139	1570	1430	3510	.283	.243	.245
140-149	1769	1571	3900	.342	.302	.301
150-159	1813	1553	3956	.406	.364	.361
160-169	1771	1708	4175	.469	.429	.423
170-179	1785	1636	4100	.532	.496	.486
180-189	1720	1552	4066	.595	.559	.548
190-199	1623	1512	3948	.654	.620	.609
200-209	1483	1391	3645	.709	.677	.667
210-219	1316	1389	3421	.759	.733	.721
220-229	1235	1277	3249	.804	.786	.771
230-239	1094	1019	2770	.845	.831	.817
240-249	884	905	2394	.880	.869	.856
250-259	721	771	2073	.909	.903	.890
260-269	569	598	1620	.932	.930	.919
270-279	476	466	1323	.950	.951	.941
280-289	361	358	1036	.965	.967	.959
290-299	276	248	764	.976	.979	.972
300-309	195	172	535	.985	.988	.982
310-319	127	104	366	.991	.993	.989
320-329	86	62	243	.994	.997	.994
330-339	58	39	137	.997	.998	.997
340-349	34	10	82	.998	.999	.998
350-359	14	5	35	.999	.999	.999
360-369	9	2	18	.999	.999	.999
370-379	1	1	4	.999	.999	.999
380-389	2		2	.999	.999	.999
Total.....	28185	25179	65737			
				Men	Women	Total
Lower Quartile.....				129.05	136.26	135.89
Median.....				169.87	175.67	177.23
Upper Quartile.....				213.13	218.14	223.74

¹ The total includes the scores of 12,373 students not classified according to sex.

Table IV

COMPLETION TEST

(Norms based on records of 53,242 students in 280 colleges)

Scores	Frequency			Percentile		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
0	25	134	159	.000	.003	.001
2	28	22	50	.001	.006	.003
4	48	60	108	.003	.007	.005
6	93	116	209	.005	.011	.008
8	159	252	411	.010	.018	.014
10	287	416	703	.018	.032	.024
12	396	696	1092	.029	.054	.041
14	554	920	1474	.047	.086	.065
16	809	1136	1945	.071	.127	.097
18	993	1414	2407	.103	.178	.138
20	1200	1569	2769	.142	.237	.187
22	1438	1685	3123	.189	.302	.242
24	1568	1784	3352	.242	.371	.303
26	1697	1718	3415	.300	.441	.366
28	1828	1690	3518	.363	.508	.432
30	1888	1582	3470	.429	.573	.497
32	1879	1433	3312	.496	.634	.561
34	1764	1361	3125	.561	.689	.621
36	1725	1259	2984	.623	.741	.679
38	1616	1129	2745	.682	.789	.732
40	1460	934	2394	.737	.830	.781
42	1262	824	2086	.785	.865	.823
44	1166	679	1845	.828	.895	.860
46	961	573	1534	.866	.920	.891
48	786	432	1218	.897	.940	.917
50	635	368	1003	.922	.956	.938
52	501	279	780	.943	.969	.955
54	378	185	563	.958	.978	.968
56	314	144	458	.970	.985	.977
58	220	117	337	.980	.990	.985
60	161	78	239	.987	.994	.990
62	114	42	156	.992	.996	.994
64	71	31	102	.995	.997	.996
66	44	17	61	.997	.998	.998
68	33	11	44	.998	.999	.999
70	14	9	23	.999	.999	.999
72	7	9	16	.999	.999	.999
74	4	2	6	.999	.999	.999
76	4	1	5	.999	.999	.999
78	1		1	.999		
80						
Total	28131	25111	53242			
				Men	Women	Total
Lower Quartile				25.28	21.42	23.27
Median				33.12	28.75	31.09
Upper Quartile				41.51	37.34	39.68

Table V
ARITHMETIC TEST

(Norms based on records of 53,033 students in 280 colleges)

Scores	Frequency			Percentile		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
0	192	552	744	.003	.011	.007
4	664	1428	2092	.019	.051	.034
8	1225	2523	3748	.052	.130	.088
12	2089	3415	5504	.112	.248	.176
16	2713	3678	6391	.197	.390	.288
20	3206	3562	6768	.303	.535	.412
24	3178	2892	6070	.417	.664	.533
28	3090	2147	5237	.528	.765	.640
32	2830	1625	4455	.634	.840	.731
36	2256	1136	3392	.725	.895	.805
40	1888	775	2663	.799	.933	.862
44	1468	539	2007	.859	.959	.906
48	1088	311	1399	.904	.977	.938
52	771	186	957	.937	.987	.961
56	534	116	650	.961	.993	.976
60	367	55	422	.977	.996	.986
64	215	29	244	.987	.998	.992
68	118	19	137	.993	.999	.996
72	83	10	93	.997	.999	.998
76	44	2	46	.999	.999	.999
80	11	3	14	.999	.999	.999
Total.....	28030	25003	53033			
				Men	Women	Total
Lower Quartile.....				20.16	14.05	16.73
Median.....				28.97	21.02	24.52
Upper Quartile.....				39.25	29.31	34.89

Table VI

ARTIFICIAL LANGUAGE TEST

(Norms based on records of 53,363 students in 280 colleges)

Scores	Frequency			Percentile		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
0-1	419	330	749	.007	.007	.007
2-3	157	53	210	.018	.014	.016
4-5	237	62	299	.025	.016	.021
6-7	352	111	463	.035	.020	.028
8-9	499	147	646	.050	.025	.038
10-11	731	251	982	.072	.033	.054
12-13	875	299	1174	.100	.044	.073
14-15	1113	381	1494	.136	.057	.098
16-17	1253	513	1766	.178	.075	.128
18-19	1293	610	1903	.223	.097	.163
20-21	1447	686	2133	.272	.123	.201
22-23	1427	767	2194	.322	.152	.241
24-25	1508	758	2266	.375	.182	.283
26-27	1441	853	2294	.427	.214	.326
28-29	1388	923	2311	.477	.249	.369
30-31	1328	916	2244	.525	.286	.411
32-33	1212	953	2165	.570	.323	.453
34-35	1213	1024	2237	.613	.362	.494
36-37	1124	952	2076	.655	.402	.534
38-39	947	1018	1965	.692	.441	.572
40-41	907	957	1864	.724	.480	.608
42-43	809	925	1734	.755	.517	.642
44-45	806	877	1683	.784	.553	.674
46-47	705	790	1495	.810	.586	.704
48-49	562	774	1336	.833	.617	.730
50-51	571	828	1399	.853	.649	.756
52-53	491	803	1294	.872	.681	.781
54-55	479	747	1226	.889	.712	.805
56-57	416	721	1137	.905	.741	.827
58-59	358	703	1061	.918	.770	.847
60-61	336	672	1008	.931	.797	.867
62-63	280	584	864	.942	.822	.884
64-65	260	541	801	.951	.844	.900
66-67	198	512	710	.959	.865	.914
68-69	147	419	566	.966	.884	.926
70-71	156	375	531	.971	.899	.936
72-73	155	355	510	.976	.914	.946
74-75	92	308	400	.981	.927	.955
76-77	91	284	375	.984	.939	.962
78-79	74	248	322	.987	.949	.968
80-81	53	229	282	.989	.959	.974
82-83	66	200	266	.991	.967	.979
84-85	56	200	256	.994	.975	.984
86-87	63	205	268	.996	.983	.989
88-89	60	188	248	.998	.991	.994
90	30	126	156	.999	.997	.998
Total.....	28185	25178	53363			
				Men	Women	Total
Lower Quartile.....				20.16	29.03	23.39
Median.....				29.93	42.05	35.24
Upper Quartile.....				42.66	57.60	50.48

Table VII
ANALOGIES TEST

(Norms based on records of 53,098 students in 280 colleges)

Scores	Frequency			Percentile		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
0	311	278	589	.006	.006	.006
2	301	151	452	.016	.014	.015
4	387	263	650	.029	.022	.026
6	450	323	773	.044	.034	.039
8	494	358	852	.060	.048	.054
10	583	350	933	.079	.062	.071
12	553	449	1002	.099	.078	.089
14	581	465	1046	.120	.096	.109
16	635	439	1074	.142	.114	.129
18	616	465	1081	.164	.132	.149
20	649	486	1135	.186	.151	.170
22	792	627	1419	.212	.173	.194
24	950	775	1725	.243	.201	.224
26	1076	952	2028	.279	.236	.259
28	1342	1261	2603	.322	.280	.302
30	1526	1508	3034	.374	.335	.356
32	1778	1848	3626	.432	.402	.418
34	2048	2064	4112	.501	.480	.491
36	2276	2331	4607	.578	.568	.573
38	2360	2312	4672	.660	.661	.661
40	2225	2221	4446	.742	.751	.746
42	2044	1845	3889	.818	.833	.825
44	1558	1352	2910	.882	.897	.889
46	1122	903	2025	.930	.942	.935
48	749	537	1286	.963	.970	.967
50	379	307	686	.983	.987	.985
52	175	117	292	.993	.996	.994
54	82	42	124	.998	.999	.998
56	19	5	24	.999	.999	.999
58		3	3		.999	.999
Total,	28061	25037	53098			

	Men	Women	Total
Lower Quartile.....	25.40	27.74	26.54
Median.....	34.98	35.47	35.23
Upper Quartile.....	41.21	40.97	41.08

Table VIII.—OPPOSITES TEST

(Norms based on records of 52,775 students in 280 colleges)

Scores	Frequency			Percentile		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
0	38	129	167	.000	.003	.002
3	91	39	130	.003	.006	.004
6	234	105	339	.009	.009	.009
9	355	167	522	.019	.014	.017
12	559	280	839	.036	.023	.030
15	689	381	1070	.058	.037	.048
18	817	527	1344	.085	.055	.071
21	1002	593	1595	.118	.077	.099
24	1136	771	1907	.156	.105	.132
27	1148	820	1968	.197	.137	.169
30	1225	920	2145	.239	.172	.207
33	1364	994	2358	.286	.210	.250
36	1370	1143	2513	.335	.253	.296
39	1241	1124	2365	.382	.299	.343
42	1278	1140	2418	.427	.344	.388
45	1373	1181	2554	.474	.391	.435
48	1353	1217	2570	.523	.439	.484
51	1151	1179	2330	.568	.487	.530
54	1231	1218	2449	.611	.535	.575
57	1195	1206	2401	.654	.584	.621
60	1110	1163	2273	.696	.631	.665
63	1155	1160	2315	.736	.678	.709
66	1069	1124	2193	.776	.724	.752
69	968	1074	2042	.813	.768	.792
72	958	988	1946	.847	.810	.829
75	860	933	1793	.879	.848	.865
78	735	803	1538	.909	.883	.897
81	603	712	1315	.932	.914	.924
84	543	649	1192	.953	.941	.947
87	415	444	859	.970	.963	.967
90	289	356	645	.983	.979	.981
93	192	205	397	.992	.990	.991
96	93	101	194	.997	.996	.996
99	48	41	89	.999	.999	.999
Total,	27888	24887	52775			
				Men	Women	Total
Lower Quartile,				32.21	37.43	34.48
Median,				48.00	53.32	50.51
Upper Quartile,				65.48	69.23	67.38

Table IX.—SIZE OF COLLEGE AND GROSS SCORE

Number of Freshmen Scores Reported	Lower Quartile	Median	Upper Quartile
0-99	135.84	176.11	219.57
100-199	134.50	175.49	219.53
200-299	134.19	174.87	218.51
300-399	143.26	183.90	226.66
400-499	122.36	161.70	206.15
500-599	129.33	168.27	208.40
600-699	130.90	168.05	206.88
700-799	148.53	189.26	230.39
800-899	148.96	181.89	219.91
900 or more	120.94	157.47	197.01

Table X

COMPARISON OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS

(Based on the records of 27,809 students in public institutions and
25,889 students in private institutions)

Gross Scores	Frequency		Percentile	
	Public	Private	Public	Private
0-9	1	1	.000	.000
10-19	5	2	.000	.000
20-29	24	18	.001	.000
30-39	60	47	.002	.002
40-49	155	85	.006	.004
50-59	293	129	.014	.008
60-69	397	263	.026	.016
70-79	646	351	.045	.028
80-89	832	468	.072	.044
90-99	1056	618	.106	.065
100-109	1249	785	.147	.092
110-119	1429	990	.200	.126
120-129	1672	1132	.251	.167
130-139	1714	1311	.312	.214
140-149	1831	1537	.376	.269
150-159	1819	1569	.441	.329
160-169	1886	1611	.508	.391
170-179	1752	1684	.573	.454
180-189	1648	1644	.635	.518
190-199	1613	1539	.693	.580
200-209	1355	1535	.747	.639
210-219	1295	1430	.794	.697
220-229	1189	1336	.839	.750
230-239	945	1177	.877	.799
240-249	779	1016	.908	.841
250-259	635	868	.934	.877
260-269	452	716	.953	.908
270-279	332	612	.967	.934
280-289	255	467	.978	.954
290-299	187	337	.986	.970
300-309	131	236	.991	.981
310-319	70	163	.995	.989
320-329	46	102	.997	.994
330-339	33	65	.998	.997
340-349	13	31	.999	.998
350-359	6	13	.999	.999
360-369	2	9	.999	.999
370-379		2	.999	.999
380-389	2		.999	.999
Total	27809	25899		
			Public	Private
Lower Quartile.....			124.82	141.96
Median,			163.83	182.12
Upper Quartile.....			205.72	225.05

Table XI

COMPARISON OF COEDUCATIONAL SCHOOLS, MEN'S SCHOOLS,
AND WOMEN'S SCHOOLS

Gross Scores	Frequency			Percentile		
	Coeducational	Men's	Women's	Coeducational	Men's	Women's
0-9	1	1		.000	.000	.000
10-19	6		1	.000	.000	.000
20-29	31	4	7	.001	.000	.001
30-39	76	8	23	.002	.002	.002
40-49	183	24	33	.005	.006	.006
50-59	338	35	49	.011	.014	.011
60-69	509	47	104	.021	.025	.020
70-79	806	49	142	.037	.037	.035
80-89	1056	86	158	.059	.055	.054
90-99	1346	99	229	.088	.079	.077
100-109	1734	122	280	.125	.107	.109
110-119	2009	160	338	.170	.144	.146
120-129	2307	184	390	.222	.189	.191
130-139	2503	174	431	.279	.235	.241
140-149	2698	207	516	.342	.285	.299
150-159	2750	215	490	.407	.339	.361
160-169	2771	246	514	.473	.399	.422
170-179	2712	229	531	.539	.461	.486
180-189	2616	216	486	.603	.518	.549
190-199	2456	238	468	.664	.577	.607
200-209	2060	250	465	.718	.641	.664
210-219	1972	215	451	.766	.701	.720
220-229	1851	195	405	.812	.754	.773
230-239	1521	165	355	.853	.801	.819
240-249	1309	150	284	.887	.842	.859
250-259	1072	116	252	.915	.876	.891
260-269	829	90	215	.938	.903	.920
270-279	651	90	168	.956	.926	.944
280-289	503	65	129	.969	.946	.962
290-299	368	54	92	.980	.962	.975
300-309	261	46	60	.987	.975	.985
310-319	162	27	44	.993	.984	.991
320-329	104	20	24	.996	.990	.995
330-339	64	14	20	.998	.995	.998
340-349	33	6	5	.999	.997	.999
350-359	14	3	2	.999	.999	.999
360-369	7	3	1	.999	.999	.999
370-379	2			.999	.999	.999
380-389	1	1		.999	.999	.999
Total.....	41692	3854	8162			
		Coeducational	Men's	Women's		
		Schools	Schools	Schools		
Lower Quartile,.....		130.01	138.30	136.65		
Median,.....		168.99	181.71	177.08		
Upper Quartile,.....		211.53	224.18	220.70		

Table XII

COMPARISON OF FOUR-YEAR COLLEGES, JUNIOR COLLEGES,
AND TEACHERS COLLEGES

Gross Scores	Frequency			Percentile		
	Four-Year Colleges	Junior Colleges	Teachers Colleges	Four-Year Colleges	Junior Colleges	Teachers Colleges
0-9	5			.000	.000	.000
10-19	9	2	1	.000	.000	.000
20-29	31	7	6	.001	.001	.001
30-39	53	21	19	.002	.003	.003
40-49	148	39	23	.004	.007	.006
50-59	238	83	52	.009	.016	.013
60-69	410	106	90	.017	.030	.025
70-79	634	164	129	.030	.049	.044
80-89	813	217	183	.048	.076	.070
90-99	1050	273	219	.071	.117	.105
100-109	1451	313	255	.101	.154	.145
110-119	1730	337	339	.141	.201	.196
120-129	1986	447	351	.186	.257	.255
130-139	2178	458	380	.238	.322	.317
140-149	2536	423	419	.296	.386	.386
150-159	2562	471	383	.359	.450	.454
160-169	2614	479	437	.422	.518	.524
170-179	2666	449	370	.488	.585	.593
180-189	2581	409	364	.552	.647	.656
190-199	2510	382	340	.615	.704	.716
200-209	2269	316	282	.674	.754	.769
210-219	2130	318	251	.728	.799	.815
220-229	1986	296	226	.779	.844	.856
230-239	1692	247	172	.824	.883	.890
240-249	1419	199	165	.862	.915	.919
250-259	1212	158	122	.895	.941	.943
260-269	981	103	79	.922	.960	.960
270-279	798	71	74	.944	.972	.973
280-289	622	57	39	.961	.981	.983
290-299	468	31	24	.975	.988	.988
300-309	308	29	26	.984	.992	.993
310-319	202	17	14	.990	.995	.996
320-329	126	11	9	.995	.997	.998
330-339	84	7	6	.997	.999	.999
340-349	38	4	1	.999	.999	.999
350-359	17	2		.999	.999	.999
360-369	11			.999	.999	.999
370-379	2			.999	.999	.999
380-389	2			.999	.999	.999
Total....	40572	6946	5850			

	Four-Year Colleges	Junior Colleges	Teachers Colleges
Lower Quartile.....	137.28	124.46	124.17
Median.....	176.89	163.38	161.74
Upper Quartile.....	219.18	206.46	200.98

The Council at Work

THE Council at Work is a brief summary of the outstanding new projects in which the Council is interested, as well as a progress report on undertakings already launched. It is hoped that this survey will give to the members of the Council and those interested in its work a more intimate view of the Council's development. Individuals desiring further information regarding subjects mentioned in this section are invited to write to the offices of the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

ANNUAL MEETING OF THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

The twentieth annual meeting of the American Council on Education will convene in Washington, D. C., on Friday and Saturday, May 7 and 8, 1937. This year the meeting will again be held in the auditorium of the United States Chamber of Commerce Building, 1615 H Street, N.W., which is on the corner opposite the offices of the Council. In addition to the representatives of the constituent, institutional, and associate members of the Council, there will be guests from other educational, social, and governmental agencies.

Dr. Zook, president of the Council, has announced a tentative program which includes addresses by such outstanding educational and lay leaders as: Mr. Chester Rowell, editor of the *San Francisco Chronicle* and member of the American Youth Commission; Mr. Louis H. Brownlow, director of

Public Administration Clearing House and chairman of President Roosevelt's Committee on Administrative Management; Dr. Miriam Van Waters, superintendent of the State Reformatory for Women, Framingham, Massachusetts, and secretary of the American Youth Commission; Dr. Alexander G. Ruthven, president of the University of Michigan; Dr. Raymond A. Kent, president of the University of Louisville; Mr. Lloyd Morey, comptroller of the University of Illinois and chief consultant of the Financial Advisory Service; Dr. Burton P. Fowler, headmaster, Tower Hill School; Dr. Walter M. Kotschnig, former secretary, High Commission for Refugees of the League of Nations; and others.

President Kent, chairman of the Council for 1936-37, will preside at the regular sessions. Dr. Zook will open the meeting on Friday morning with his annual report. On Friday noon the representatives and visitors will be guests of the Council at luncheon at the Cosmos Club. The annual banquet will be on Friday evening at the Mayflower Hotel. Throughout the sessions the Council will have a display of publications and activities in which it is interested.

THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

The Executive Committee of the Council held its regular winter meeting in Washington, D. C., on February 7, 1937. In accordance with the Council's usual practice, the Committee on Problems and Plans in Education met the two preceding days in Atlantic City.

The Executive Committee accepted the applications of eight new institutional members. Since the Council membership has been opened to state departments of education and certain city school systems, it was voted to extend the privileges of institutional membership to not more than 25 special institutions and private secondary schools of distinctive type. The total membership now is: constituent, 29; associate, 27; institutional, 332; total, 388. The newly elected members are:

Institutional:

Armour Institute of Technology, Chicago, Illinois
Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana
Merrill-Palmer School, Detroit, Michigan
Rochester Mechanics Institute, Rochester, New York
Thiel College, Greenville, Pennsylvania
Wilson Teachers College, Washington, D. C.

Iowa State Department of Education, Des Moines, Iowa
Providence City School System, Providence, Rhode Island

THE AMERICAN YOUTH COMMISSION

The American Youth Commission has recently authorized the publication of several of the reports which have been prepared for it. The staff has written and is distributing free of charge a pamphlet, *Activities of the American Youth Commission*, which outlines the work which has been undertaken during the first year of the project. In March the Commission inaugurated a monthly bulletin featuring three pages of current references on the literature of youth problems. Members of the Council and others may secure these monthly issues free by writing to the Commission.

It is expected that two volumes will be ready for distribution by May 1. The first of these, *Secondary Education for Youth in Modern America*, is by Dr. Harl R. Douglass of the University of Minnesota who has been associated with the Commission as associate director in secondary education. In this study Dr. Douglass has made an extensive inquiry into educational problems and conditions and reports the historical development of schools with emphasis on recent changes in American life which affect education. The objectives of secondary education are discussed and a program for the schools is offered.

A second volume, *Youth Serving Organizations*, a directory of 330 national non-governmental groups, edited by Dr. M. M. Chambers of the Commission staff, describes the membership, purpose, activities, publications, staff, and finances of each group.

Copies of these two reports will be distributed by the Council. The price will probably be one dollar and fifty cents a copy.

MOTION PICTURES IN EDUCATION

When the Committee on Motion Pictures in Education met in Washington on February 1 and 2, 1937, Dr. Ben G. Graham, superintendent of the Pittsburgh Public Schools, was named chairman of the committee under whose direction the educational motion picture project of the Council has developed. It was also announced at the meeting that Dr. Charles F. Hoban, Jr., associate in motion picture education on the Council staff, had been granted a fellowship by the General Education Board for the study of the use of films in Western Europe. He will leave in May for a three months' visit.

The staff of the motion picture project has cooperated in several recent conferences related to the preparation of teachers in the use of motion pictures and other modern teaching aids. Conferences were held in November 1936 at Milwaukee, Wisconsin, in cooperation with the University of Wisconsin, and in January 1937 in New York City with Teachers College, Columbia University. Representatives of teacher training institutions and others responsible for teacher preparation in the use of visual aids attended. A report of the New York conference is available from the Council offices, and of the Milwaukee meeting from Dr. Edgar Dale, Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University. A charge of twenty cents is made for the latter report to defray mailing and clerical costs.

The staff also assisted the School of Adult Education of the University of Florida's General Extension Division in a short training course for teachers, February 6 to 14, 1937. One hundred and twenty Florida teachers spent several days evaluating a large number of films and correlating them with the Florida state course of study in science and geography for elementary and secondary schools. Reports on this program are available from Miss Bernice Ashburn, School of Adult Education, Camp Roosevelt, Florida.

A series of publications intended to facilitate the use of motion pictures in education will be released about June 1, 1937. This series includes a volume of digests of literature on various phases of visual instruction, to be published by the H. W. Wilson Company, 950 University Avenue, New York City; an overview of the problems of motion pictures in education by the Committee on Motion Pictures in Education; a handbook on the use of educational films by Dr. Edgar Dale; and a syllabus on teacher training in modern teaching aids by the Subcommittee on Teacher Preparation under the chairmanship of Dr. Henry Klonower, director of teacher training and certification, Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction. The last three will be published in the series of *American Council on Education Studies*.

Dr. Cline M. Koon, senior specialist in radio and visual education of the United States Office of Education, has received a grant from the committee for the preparation of an interpretative study of the status of audio-visual equipment in the elementary and secondary schools of the country. The original survey of more than 8,000 school systems was conducted jointly in 1936 by the Council and the Office of Education and was published by the Council in the volume, *National Visual Education Directory*. Dr. Koon's study will be published this spring as a bulletin of the Office of Education.

FINANCIAL ADVISORY SERVICE

In cooperation with the Financial Advisory Service of the Council, the American Association of Teachers Colleges at its meeting in New Orleans in February authorized a study of financial reporting for teachers colleges. The subcommittee which is to draft the report for the Association consists of: Dr. Frank D. McElroy, president, State Teachers College, Mankato, Minnesota, *chairman*; Mr. W. E. Wagoner, controller, Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana; and Mr. Lloyd Morey, chief consultant of the Financial Advisory Service.

The Financial Advisory Service will also cooperate with a committee of the American Association of Junior Colleges to establish uniform accounting and reporting by junior colleges. The committee was appointed at the February meeting of the Association in Dallas, Texas.

The Service has also sponsored several conferences where business officers met to discuss problems of accounting and finance. Such a conference was held in conjunction with the annual meeting of the National Catholic Educational Association at Louisville, Kentucky, March 31 to April 2. A similar meeting for business officers of the southern states will be held in Atlanta, Georgia, on April 16 in connection with the annual meeting of the Southern Association of College and University Business Officers.

Mr. John B. Goodwin, technical associate of the Financial Advisory Service, visited eleven colleges and universities during February and March. These visits were made at the request of the institutions. Mr. Goodwin consulted with presidents and business officers regarding reporting, accounting, and other financial problems with which the institutions were faced. Requests for similar visits by the staff of the Service should be forwarded to the central office of the Council.

COMMITTEE ON MEASUREMENT AND GUIDANCE

The Cooperative Test Service, under the direction of Dr. Ben D. Wood, has recently announced several developments in its service. A revised series of tests will be available on May 1, 1937. These new tests can be administered in 40 minutes so that they can be used in regular class periods. The revised series will include tests in most of the fundamental subject matter fields. In addition, the tests in the revised series will be adapted for use with the answer sheets of the International Test Scoring Machine in order that institutions can take advantage of the reduction in cost and time which machine scoring makes possible.

The Committee on Measurement and Guidance of the

Council which supervises all testing activities has announced the annual sophomore testing program to be administered between April 19 and May 8, 1937. Last year more than 100 colleges and universities cooperated in the program which is designed to furnish reliable data for guidance at the sophomore level.

The Committee has also received from Dr. L. L. Thurstone of the University of Chicago his new tests of primary mental abilities which will be ready for distribution in the fall of 1937. It is believed that the tests will be administered for the first year to a limited population of representative students throughout the country. Dr. Thurstone will continue to edit the regular *American Council on Education Psychological Examinations*.

Dr. Donald G. Paterson, University of Minnesota, has been added to the membership of the Committee on Measurement and Guidance.

COUNCIL STAFF

Dr. J. B. Sears of Stanford University has been temporarily associated with the staff of the American Council on Education for the past three months. Dr. Sears has been investigating certain problems related to teacher education and research in education.

Dr. H. W. Davis of Ohio State University has been giving part-time service to the Council during the winter quarter. He has been studying the possible relationship of certain educational organizations to the Public Administration Clearing House.

THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION STUDIES

The Executive Committee recently authorized the establishment of a series of *American Council on Education Studies* in order to assure the publication of certain materials prepared for the Council and its subsidiary organizations. The *Studies* will include reports of Council committees, the Coun-

cil staff, and such organizations as the American Youth Commission, educational motion picture project, and others.

The Testing Movement, the first of the *Studies* was published in February 1937 and is the report of the Committee on Review of the Testing Movement. Copies have already been distributed to members of the Council. Additional copies can be obtained at twenty-five cents a copy by writing to the Council office. *Government and Educational Organization*, another study, will be published about April 15.

"WEALTH, CHILDREN AND EDUCATION"

The most recent volume to which the Council has contributed is *Wealth, Children and Education* by Dr. John K. Norton and Mrs. Margaret Norton. This book developed in part from the work of the Committee on Government and Educational Finance, of which Dr. Norton is chairman. It is published by Teachers College Press, Columbia University, and sells at two dollars a copy.

"YEARBOOK OF SCHOOL LAW"

By special arrangement with the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and Purdue University, the American Council on Education will publish in April *The Fifth Yearbook of School Law*. This is the annual discussion of legal decisions related to education which Dr. M. M. Chambers compiles and edits. Copies can be ordered now at one dollar a copy.

CONFERENCES AND MEETINGS

The Council has been represented by its administrative officers at the following meetings since January:

- American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business, Baton Rouge, Louisiana
- American Association of School Administrators, New Orleans, Louisiana
- American Association of Teachers Colleges, New Orleans, Louisiana

American Council of Guidance and Personnel Association, New Orleans, Louisiana

American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, Louisiana

Association of American Colleges, Washington, D. C.

Association of Collegiate Schools of Nursing, Washington, D. C.

Committee on the Administration of the Curriculum of the National League of Nursing Education, New York City

Council on Rural Education of the Julius Rosenwald Fund, Chicago, Illinois

National Advisory Council on Radio in Education, New York City

National Committee on Research in Education, New Orleans, Louisiana

National Youth Administration Advisory Committee, Washington, D. C.

The
EDUCATIONAL RECORD

VOL. XVIII

NUMBER 3

JULY
1937

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AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

1937-38

OFFICERS

CHAIRMAN: Edward C. Elliott, president of Purdue University

FIRST VICE CHAIRMAN: Eugene R. Smith, headmaster of the Beaver Country Day School, representing the Progressive Education Association

SECOND VICE CHAIRMAN: Guy E. Snively, executive secretary of the Association of American Colleges, representing the Association of Urban Universities

SECRETARY: E. O. Melby, dean of the School of Education, Northwestern University

TREASURER: Corcoran Thom, president of the American Security and Trust Company, Washington, D. C.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE:

The Chairman and the Secretary of the American Council on Education

For three years: Samuel P. Capen, chancellor of the University of Buffalo, representing the Association of American Colleges; Raymond A. Kent, president of the University of Louisville

For two years: Shelton Phelps, president of Winthrop College; Louis R. Wilson, dean of the Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, representing the American Library Association

For one year: Sidney B. Hall, state superintendent of public instruction of Virginia, representing the National Education Association; Kathryn McHale, general director of the American Association of University Women

Ex officio: John W. Studebaker, United States Commissioner of Education

EXECUTIVE OFFICERS

PRESIDENT: George F. Zook

PRESIDENT EMERITUS: C. R. Mann

VICE PRESIDENT: C. S. Marsh

ASSISTANT TO THE PRESIDENT: Donald J. Shank

CHIEF ACCOUNTANT: Grace R. Ontrich

Published Quarterly by

THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

50 CENTS A COPY

\$2.00 A YEAR

Entered as second-class matter June 8, 1932, at the Post Office at Washington, D. C., under the Act of August 24, 1912

The Educational Record

July 1937

CLARENCE STEPHEN MARSH, *Editor*

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Contributors to This Issue

BURTON F. FOWLER is headmaster of the Tower Hill School at Wilmington, Delaware. He is a member of the advisory board of the Progressive Education Association and was formerly president of that association. He is a member of the Committee on Problems and Plans in Education of the American Council.

GEORGE JOHNSON is director of the department of education of the National Catholic Welfare Conference, associate professor of education at Catholic University of America, and secretary-general of the National Catholic Educational Association. From 1934 to 1937 Father Johnson was secretary of the American Council and he is now a member of the American Youth Commission.

RAYMOND A. KENT is president of the University of Louisville. He was formerly dean of the College of Liberal Arts at Northwestern University. In 1936-37 he was chairman of the American Council and is now a member of the Executive Committee.

WALTER M. KOTSCHNIK is visiting professor of comparative education at Smith College and Mount Holyoke College. He was formerly secretary of the High Commission for Refugees of the League of Nations and for many years was secretary-general of the International Student Service.

JOHN H. MACCRACKEN, formerly president of Lafayette College, was associate director of the American Council on Education from 1930 to 1934.

LEON C. MARSHALL is professor of political economy at American University and visiting professor of education at Johns Hopkins University. For many years he served the University of Chi-

cago as dean of the College of Commerce and Administration. From 1928 to 1933 he was professor of law at the Johns Hopkins Institute of Law, and from 1933 to 1936 he was associated with the National Recovery Administration.

LLOYD MOREY is comptroller of the University of Illinois where he has also been professor of accounting. He is widely known as a consultant in business organization and finance for universities. As chief consultant of the Financial Advisory Service, he is closely associated with the work of the Council.

CHESTER H. ROWELL is editor of the *San Francisco Chronicle*. For many years he has been a member of the Board of Regents of the University of California. He is a member of the National Crime Commission, the Social Science Research Council of the Pacific Coast, and has been a member of many conferences of the Institute of Pacific Relations. He is a member of the American Youth Commission.

ALEXANDER G. RUTHVEN is president of the University of Michigan. As chief naturalist of the Michigan Geological and Biological Survey and as director of the Museum of Zoology of the University, he has directed scientific expeditions in North, South, and Central America.

MIRIAM VAN WATERS is superintendent of the Massachusetts State Reformatory for Women. Since 1926 she has been director of the juvenile delinquency section of the Harvard Law School Crime Survey. She is secretary of the American Youth Commission.

GEORGE F. ZOOK is president of the American Council on Education and is well known to readers of *THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD*.

The Educational Record

July



1937

The Twentieth Annual Meeting

IN JANUARY 1918, a series of meetings was held by representatives of a number of national educational associations to organize the "Emergency Council on Education." Some months later the Emergency Council became the "American Council on Education." For almost twenty years this organization has served the varied activities and interests of American education—stimulating, coordinating, and facilitating the work of the numerous educational associations to the end that educational issues of national significance might be clarified.

At the twentieth annual meeting of the American Council held in Washington, D. C., on May 7 and 8, 1937, the attendance showed a marked increase over the numbers who came in 1918 representing only fifteen associations. Delegates came this year from 24 associations holding constituent membership, from 13 holding associate membership, and from 102 colleges, universities, state departments of education, city school systems, etc., holding institutional membership. In addition, there were guests from government departments, social agencies, and other organizations whose interests are related to education.

The regular sessions of the twentieth annual meeting were held in the auditorium of the United States Chamber of Commerce Building. Raymond A. Kent, president of the University of Louisville and chairman of the Council for 1936-37,

presided at the opening session on Friday morning, May 7, and at the business meeting on Saturday, May 8. The Friday afternoon session was under the chairmanship of Gerald D. Timmons, School of Dentistry, Indiana University, and first vice chairman of the Council for 1936-37. All the papers read at the meeting are printed in this number of THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD.

The delegates were guests of the Council at a buffet luncheon on Friday at the Cosmos Club, when the wives of the Council staff acted as hostesses. At the annual dinner on Friday evening at the Mayflower Hotel, President Frank P. Graham of the University of North Carolina and second vice chairman of the Council for 1936-37, was toastmaster.

On Saturday morning, at the business meeting, the delegates adopted the budget for the fiscal year beginning July 1, 1937, amounting to \$121,235. The following officers were elected for the year 1937-38:

Chairman: Edward C. Elliott, president of Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana; representing Purdue University

First Vice Chairman: Eugene R. Smith, headmaster of the Beaver Country Day School, Chestnut Hill, Massachusetts; representing the Progressive Education Association

Second Vice Chairman: Guy E. Snavely, executive secretary of the Association of American Colleges; representing the Association of Urban Universities

Secretary: E. O. Melby, dean of the School of Education, Northwestern University; representing Northwestern University

Treasurer: Corcoran Thom, president of the American Security and Trust Company, Washington, D. C.

First Assistant Treasurer: Frederick H. P. Siddons, secretary of American Security and Trust Company, Washington, D. C.

Second Assistant Treasurer: James C. Dulin, Jr., treasurer of the American Security and Trust Company, Washington, D. C.

The following individuals were elected to the Executive Committee for a three-year term, to take the place of those whose terms expire:

Samuel P. Capen, chancellor of the University of Buffalo, Buffalo, New York; representing the Association of American Colleges

Raymond A. Kent, president of the University of Louisville, Louisville, Kentucky; representing the University of Louisville

New members were elected to the Committee on Problems and Plans in Education as follows:

Class of 1940:

Henry W. Holmes, dean of the Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts

Class of 1941:

Lotus D. Coffman, president of the University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota

Burton P. Fowler, headmaster, Tower Hill School, Wilmington, Delaware

Alphonse M. Schwitalla, S.J., dean of the School of Medicine, St. Louis University, St. Louis, Missouri

The President's Annual Report

IN ACCORDANCE with custom I wish herewith to submit the annual report of the President concerning the activities of the American Council on Education during the year just closed. The work of the Council has grown considerably and the report will deal in the main, therefore, with the various aspects of the Council's activities. Here and there, however, personal observations on current educational matters break through what otherwise might be a very dry recital of facts.

For convenience in reporting so many varied activities, I have divided my discussion into four major sections more or less arbitrarily. Section I deals with certain administrative developments within the central organization of the Council. Section II concerns the activities of a number of standing committees. Section III reports the undertakings of several projects under the auspices of the Council. Section IV outlines certain new problems to which the Council has given attention during the year.

I. ADMINISTRATION OF THE COUNCIL

MEMBERSHIP

It will be remembered that last year the privileges of membership in the Council were extended to all teachers colleges on the accredited list of the American Association of Teachers Colleges, to all state departments of education, and to all public school systems located in cities of 200,000 or more population. During the year just closed the privileges of membership have been further extended to not more than twenty-five special institutions and private secondary schools. Under this latter provision two institutions have been admitted to membership.

The membership of the Council during the year just closed has continued its steady and healthy growth as follows:

	May 1935	May 1936	May 1937
Constituent members	26	28	30
Associate members	19	24	28
Institutional members	225	323	338
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Total	270	375	396

The institutions and organizations admitted to membership in the Council during the year are as follows:

Constituent Members:

American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business
National University Extension Association

Associate Members:

Delphian Society
National Association of Deans and Advisers of Men
Presbyterian Board of Christian Education
Pennsylvania Board of Presidents
Western Personnel Service

Institutional Members:

Armour Institute of Technology, Chicago, Illinois
Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana
Bethany College, Bethany, West Virginia
Iowa State Board of Education
Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kansas
Massachusetts State College, Amherst, Massachusetts
Massachusetts State Department of Education
Merrill-Palmer School, Detroit, Michigan
Missouri State Department of Public Schools
Mount Union College, Alliance, Ohio
Ottumwa Heights College, Ottumwa, Iowa
Providence Public School System, Rhode Island
Rochester Athenaeum and Mechanics Institute, Rochester, New York
Thiel College, Greenville, Pennsylvania
University of the City of Toledo, Ohio
Westminster College, Fulton, Missouri
Wilson Teachers College, District of Columbia

CHANGES AND ADDITIONS IN STAFF

During the year the following changes in the staff have been made:

C. S. Marsh, from Associate Director to Vice President and Editor.

Donald J. Shank, Assistant to the President, named Assistant Editor and Business Manager of Publications.

Grace R. Ontrich, from Chief Clerk to Chief Accountant.

Charles F. Hoban, Jr., Associate in charge of motion picture education.

John B. Goodwin, vice George E. Van Dyke, resigned, as Technical Associate, Financial Advisory Service.

A. Robert Seass, Research Assistant, Financial Advisory Service.

Jesse B. Sears of Stanford University, temporary assignment in teacher education.

Harvey H. Davis of Ohio State University, temporary assignment regarding the representation of educational organizations at Public Administration Clearing House, Chicago.

Payson Smith, temporary appointment in teacher education, resigned.

FINANCES

It will be remembered that at the last annual meeting the close of the fiscal year of the Council was changed to June 30, instead of April 30, of each year. The current budget adopted in accordance with this change covers the fourteen-month period from May 1, 1936 to June 30, 1937. Hence no regular audit of the Council's funds will be made until the end of the fiscal year. There will, however, be presented to you tomorrow a financial statement under the budget items showing receipts and disbursements through April 30, 1937. According to this statement it will be noted that the Council is operating well within its budget. Particular attention is called to the fact that of the \$300,000 granted by the General Education Board three years ago, for the current expenses of the Council, \$29,918.30 was spent the first year; \$39,726.30

during the second year; and \$57,619.06 to date during the third year; total \$127,263.66. At our present rate of expenditure the grant will last for about three more years.

GRANTS

During the year the Council has received grants of money for special purposes as follows:

GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD:

For the support of the Financial Advisory Service for colleges and universities, for two years from September 1, 1936.....	\$ 32,000.00
For carrying forward the Council's program of the educational uses of motion pictures, from May 1, 1936 to June 30, 1937.....	25,000.00
To assist the United States Office of Education in the completion of its study of forms and records used in reporting public school statistics, beginning July 1, 1936	2,500.00
For use by the United States Office of Education in meeting the expenses of regional conferences of state supervisors or directors of research and statistics for the purpose of discussing steps to be taken in the revision of state reporting and recording systems, from February 1937 to December 31, 1937.....	3,500.00
For conferences and investigations in the field of surveys to be initiated by the United States Office of Education, from July 1, 1936 to June 30, 1937.....	7,500.00
To enable the American Youth Commission to undertake a comprehensive survey of the program of the Civilian Conservation Corps, from July 1, 1936 to December 31, 1937.....	77,800.00
For additional assistance to the American Youth Commission for a survey of youth in the state of Maryland, from March 15, 1936 to December 1, 1937..	6,200.00
Toward the expenses of planning a Second National Conference on Educational Broadcasting to be held in December 1937; available from April 10, 1937 to December 10, 1937.....	500.00

CARNEGIE CORPORATION:

Through the National Advisory Council on Radio in Education, for expenses of the First National Conference on Educational Broadcasting, December 1936	2,500.00
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REGIONAL ACCREDITING AGENCIES:

Toward the expenses of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards.....	3,424.95
Additional aid from the National Advisory Council on Radio in Education, toward expenses of First National Conference on Educational Broadcasting.....	125.00
Total	<u>\$161,049.95</u>

STANDING COMMITTEES

Shortly after the annual meeting of the Council in May 1936 the Executive Committee approved the following changes in the standing committees of the Council:

Committees discontinued:

- Central Committee on Personnel Methods
- Committee on Manual of Examinations
- Committee on the Study of Pharmacy

Committees created:

- Committee on Editorial Policy,
David A. Robertson, *Chairman*
- Committee on Measurement and Guidance,
Herbert E. Hawkes, *Chairman*
- Committee on Motion Pictures in Education,
Ben G. Graham, *Chairman*
- Advisory Committee on the Financial Advisory Service,
Lloyd Morey, *Chairman*

II. ACTIVITIES OF COMMITTEES

The Council, as you know, carries on its activities chiefly through a number of committees representing the broad interests of its members. Since there are now more than twenty of these committees, it would be impossible for me to survey all that they have done during the past year within the narrow

confines of this report. There are, however, certain matters before a number of the committees which I should like to call to your attention at this time.

EDITORIAL POLICY OF THE COUNCIL

There is appended to this report a list of the publications of the Council during the past year. These have increased considerably in number and breadth. The sale of the third edition of the handbook, *American Universities and Colleges*, edited by C. S. Marsh, has far exceeded expectations. Already over 2,800 copies of the book have been distributed. The reception of the volume entitled *The Construction and Use of Achievement Examinations*, edited by Herbert E. Hawkes and others, has also been very gratifying. Other publications of the Council will be referred to in the discussion of the various Council activities.

Because of the growth of publications it has seemed wise to organize the Council's efforts on a more effective basis. Consequently, a standing Committee on Editorial Policy has been set up with David A. Robertson as chairman. This committee has approved the establishment of the American Council on Education Studies which will be published in several series. The new Studies series will serve as a medium of publication for much of the material prepared by the Council and its committees. Six numbers have already been issued.

The Committee on Editorial Policy has also given consideration to the future development of the Council's magazine, THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD, the general format of which has been changed during the year. In this connection it should be realized that from time to time there has been considerable discussion of the need for developing or establishing a more satisfactory educational periodical in this country. The objectives of the various people interested in such a proposal vary. Some feel that educational news is not available to the extent it should be, either to the members of the profession or to the general public. Others believe that the channels for the dissemination of information about the results of

educational experimentation are quite inadequate. Still others believe that aside from the printing of addresses delivered at educational conventions and conferences no journal devotes sufficient energy to the publication of educational opinion.

In this discussion the Council's field of effort seems clear. It is not a news disseminating agency. It is not a propaganda agency. It is, however, interested in the development of educational research and in the formulation of educational policy at all levels of education. Hence the interest of the Council as reflected in *THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD* should be on serious statements of opinion based on studies and extended consideration. There is plenty of room among the large number of educational magazines in this country for a first-class journal of this kind. It is the Council's ambition to fill this place as well as it possibly can.

THE RELATION OF EMOTIONS TO THE EDUCATIVE PROCESS

For nearly three years, a committee of the Council under the chairmanship of Daniel A. Prescott of Rutgers University has been studying the relation of emotions to the educative process. The work of the committee has been made possible by the generosity of the Josiah Macy Junior Foundation, whose subsidies for this purpose, to date, amount to \$16,200.

Reporting upon the first meeting of this committee in the October 1934 issue of *THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD*, John H. MacCracken, then associate director of the Council, opened his article with a number of questions from which I have chosen four:

What consideration shall be given to emotion in the educative process? Is it the business of education to eliminate, to develop, or to control emotions? Has education, as such, any concern with the direction and strengthening of desire at the completion of the educational régime, or only with the knowledge and skills attained? Does the emotional development of youth belong to some other agent of society than the school—to the radio, the movies, the drama, the black or brown shirt, the family, the church?

The personnel of the committee which sought the answers

to these and other questions included the psychiatrist, the psychologist, the physiologist, the school administrator, and the critical student of education. The task of the committee involved delving into the literature of such subjects as neurology and endocrinology, psychology, psychiatry and medicine, aesthetics, anthropology, sociology, criminology, and education.

The committee has been concerned with problems "in the relationship between non-intellectual factors and the aims, methods, material, and personnel involved in the educative process." More specifically this has meant study of the trainability of emotional behavior, the influence of persons who control the early environment of children upon later personality manifestations, the power of desires, the situations which thwart desires, and the extent to which some of these situations are remediable by education.

The chairman of the committee has just completed the manuscript of a book containing a careful review of the whole subject assigned to the committee. There is every reason to believe that this book will be stimulating and helpful to all those teachers, administrators, and discerning students of education who see a challenge in the task of helping children and youth toward emotional as well as intellectual maturity.

The Committee on the Relation of Emotions to the Educative Process has already done a great deal to inform the public of the existence and nature of the report. The chairman, Professor Prescott, has discussed the essential features of his findings with teachers and other groups in Wilmington, Delaware; Harrisburg, Pennsylvania; Chicago, Illinois; New Brunswick, New Jersey; and Oakland, California. He has spoken also before Section Q of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, before regional conferences of the Progressive Education Association, in Portland and Eugene, Oregon; San Francisco and Los Angeles, California; and before the California Teachers Association. Everywhere the report has been received with enthusiasm. When published it should have a wide reading and helpful influence.

MEASUREMENT AND GUIDANCE

The Committee on Measurement and Guidance, Herbert E. Hawkes, chairman, is one of the most recent standing committees of the Council. You will recall that in April 1936 the Problems and Plans Committee accepted the report of the Committee on Review of the Testing Movement, which had made a comprehensive survey of the activities of the Council in relation to the total testing situation. On the basis of this report, the Executive Committee of the Council authorized the appointment of the Committee on Measurement and Guidance with responsibility for the development of the Council's program in testing. The new committee was assigned the functions of the former Central Committee on Personnel Methods as they related to the preparation and development of tools of measurement. With respect to the use of such tools in personnel programs, it was recommended that the Council consider the establishment of a new committee in this area.

The Committee on Measurement and Guidance has met three times during the year. It has continued the promotion of the *American Council on Education Psychological Examination for College Freshmen*, the fourteenth edition of which has had an increased use during the past year. More than 550 colleges and universities have used over 225,000 copies of the 1936 edition within the past eight months. This year 304 colleges returned the scores of 66,111 students in the national tabulation. This represents the broadest sampling for norms of any test published in this country.

This year the committee authorized a campaign to popularize the *American Council on Education Psychological Examination for High School Students* which Mr. and Mrs. L. L. Thurstone have prepared for several years. The use in the past has been limited to large state programs. However, during the past year approximately 50,000 copies of this examination have been used.

It is interesting to report that since the last meeting of the

Council 429,000 copies of the various editions of the psychological examination have been printed.

The Committee on Measurement and Guidance has recommended to the Executive Committee of the Council the publication of the new tests of primary mental abilities in the summer of 1937. Professor Thurstone has been engaged in the development of these tests for several years, assisted in part by the Council. He reports that the test will yield at least seven indices on various mental abilities which should describe the individual in terms of a profile of abilities instead of a single index of intelligence. Such a profile is bound to be significant in educational and vocational counseling. It is anticipated that during the first year the tests of primary mental abilities will be administered on an experimental basis in a number of selected schools throughout the country.

The second major responsibility of the Committee on Measurement and Guidance has been the Cooperative Test Service. The committee has authorized the preparation of short forms of tests in fundamental subject matter fields, which were ready for distribution on May 1. These tests in seventeen subjects are called Series N, and are designed for administration in the regular forty-minute class period.

All of the revised series as well as many of the longer forms of the Cooperative tests have been adapted for use with the International Test Scoring Machine. Ben D. Wood and the staff of the Cooperative Test Service have had an important part in the development of this machine which bids fair to revolutionize the whole testing movement since it will reduce drastically the time and effort required for scoring. Within a few weeks twenty-five of these machines will be available for use.

In addition, the committee has sponsored the 1937 sophomore testing program as well as special programs in physics and chemistry. There has been an increase in the number of cooperating institutions on these programs. The number of tests distributed by the Cooperative Test Service has had a significant increase during the year. In March of 1937, 30,000

more tests were distributed than in the same month of 1936.

The Committee on Measurement and Guidance has sponsored two conferences during the year. The Fifth Educational Conference was held in New York City with the cooperation of the Educational Records Bureau and the Progressive Education Association on October 29 and 30. Approximately 600 persons—an increase of 150 over the previous year—registered for the sessions. At one of the general sessions of the conference, the chairman of the Council, Raymond A. Kent, delivered an address on "The Program of the American Council on Education." The proceedings of this conference were published as a supplementary number of *THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD*.

At the same time the committee also sponsored a meeting of seventeen leaders of state testing programs. This conference enabled individuals from various states to exchange experiences and to outline a program for the promotion of testing on a national basis.

In addition to its administrative work, the committee has continued to survey the whole field of testing. Several exploratory studies were sponsored to determine suitable fields for further concentration of research. These included surveys of problems in reading tests on the high school and college levels, experimental evaluation of curricula by small colleges, state testing programs, and further work in the field of primary abilities.

The Committee on Review of the Testing Movement urged the establishment of an agency of the Council equipped to investigate the whole field of testing and to cooperate with other groups operating in this area. The first year's work of the Committee on Measurement and Guidance is an encouraging indication of its ability to accept this responsibility.

MODERN LANGUAGES

During the past year the Committee on Modern Languages, Robert Herndon Fife, chairman, has concluded the following undertakings:

1. French and German College Reading Tests, under the direction of V. A. C. Henmon. The tests: French—four forms; German—two forms, intended for the measurement of reading ability in a foreign language as part of the college requirement, having been completed, will be available in a short time. The committee believes that these tests will prove to be very useful.

2. "Spanish Syntax List," a study of usage in contemporary prose on the basis of range and frequency of occurrence, compiled by Hayward Keniston, is in press with Henry Holt and Company, and is now ready for distribution. This is the first quantitative study of syntactical phenomena for teaching purposes yet undertaken in any language. The report represents the conclusion of a long and careful study, the significance of which in this field of research can scarcely be overestimated.

3. The committee has distributed approximately 700 copies of the "Interim Report on Vocabulary Selection for the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language to the Americas and Far East," as well as American island areas. The distribution took place in collaboration with the London Institute on Education. In view of the large number of persons in the United States and its possessions who are as yet unable to use the English language, this report takes on unusual importance.

4. "A Survey of School and College Research in the Modern Languages," by J. B. Tharp. The final report is now ready for publication.

5. "A Study of the Relation between Oral and Aural Skills in Modern Languages." This report was published recently in the *Modern Language Journal*.

The following projects are under way:

1. An "Analytical Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching, Covering the Years 1933 to 1937." This bibliography is being prepared by Algernon Coleman. It is to be completed September 1937 and published in the fall.

2. A frequency study of French syntax, by Algernon Coleman.

3. A frequency study of German syntax, by E. W. Bagster-Collins. These last two named studies will take at least two years to complete. They are, like the Spanish Syntax Study, intended to furnish materials objectively rated for the study of French and German grammar.

If further funds can be secured for support, the committee hopes to complete the foregoing, and it plans the following studies and investigations:

1. The continuance of the "Analytical Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching" for the five-year period beginning 1938, under the direction of Professor Coleman.

2. A study of prognosis tests for modern language ability, with experiments, by V. A. C. Henmon.

3. A study of the rate of vocabulary learning in French.

4. A study of the methods best suited to the rapid development of reading ability in French.

5. A study of semantics in its relation to the acquisition of vocabulary in Spanish.

I am sure that you will agree with me that the committee is carrying on a very comprehensive and scholarly program which should serve as a sound basis for the improvement of modern language teaching in this country.

STANDARDS

In the past year the chief activity of the Committee on Standards, Raymond Walters, chairman, has been the sponsorship of two conferences on professional education. The idea of having informal meetings of a few educational leaders in medicine, law, engineering, dentistry, and pharmacy originated with William D. Cutter of the American Medical Association and Alphonse M. Schwitalla of St. Louis University.

At conferences held in Chicago on December 28, 1936, and in Washington on May 6, 1937, the topics discussed included pre-professional education, the interrelations of the professions, the relationship between professional education and professional licensure, financial support for professional edu-

cation, limitation of numbers, apprenticeships, and the relationship between general and professional education.

All in attendance felt that these informal discussions were of very real profit and agreed that they should be continued.

NATIONAL LEGISLATION

During the current year there has been no occasion for the considerable activity of the Committee on National Legislation which characterized its efforts last year. You will remember that during 1935-36 this committee took a prominent part in securing the continuation of the provision which permitted a corporation to deduct from its gross income contributions to charitable, religious, and educational institutions, such deductions not to exceed 5 per cent of its net income. It was also instrumental in securing the continuance of the tax exemption on gifts and bequests, which was contained in the old law, but omitted from the new legislation as originally introduced.

The committee, as the members will also recall, was active in securing an exemption from the provisions of the Social Security Act for persons employed in organizations and institutions "operated exclusively for religious, scientific, literary or educational purposes." By a curious chance of legislative fortune, when the unemployment compensation act applying specifically to these organizations and institutions in the District of Columbia was passed, the above exemption was not included. As a result the Council, which had been so active in securing this exemption for others, was not itself exempted; hence the necessity last year of including in the current budget the sum of \$1,000 to cover these contributions. Happily, after the Council had made six payments, an amendment to the law provided the usual exemption for organizations and institutions in the District of Columbia.

THE NATIONAL RESOURCES COMMITTEE

It will be recalled that two years ago the National Resources Board (now the National Resources Committee)

asked the National Research Council, the Social Science Research Council, and the American Council on Education each to name three members of an advisory committee. The first result of this contact was the comprehensive and stimulating statement prepared by Goodwin Watson and published in *THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD*, January 1936, entitled "Human Resources." Since that time the advisory committee, with the assistance of the American Youth Commission, has completed a study of population trends, particularly as they affect the support of education. The study was made for the committee by Newton Edwards of the University of Chicago and will be available shortly in printed form. It is well worthy of your careful examination.

A report on technological trends and their social implications is now being put into final form. This report should also be of great interest to the members of the Council. Two special memoranda have recently been prepared by members of the Council's advisory committee—one relative to governmental participation in research and education by Charles H. Judd, and the other concerning the interdependence of science and technology by Edward C. Elliott.

The advisory committee has also been asked to assist in planning projects under consideration by the Central Statistical Board.

This brief statement shows clearly that the National Resources Committee has in mind the most effective use of our material resources for the benefit of the whole population and that ultimately the development of human resources is the real objective. In a program so broadly conceived education plays an exceedingly important part. I am very happy that the Council, through this advisory committee, has been able to make a significant contribution to the work of the National Resources Committee.

GOVERNMENT AND EDUCATIONAL FINANCE

The Committee on Government and Educational Finance through its chairman, John K. Norton, Teachers College,

Columbia University, has recently cooperated in the publication of a very interesting volume entitled *Wealth, Children, and Education*. This book carries forward the Council's pioneer research efforts in the study of financing of education undertaken earlier through the Educational Finance Inquiry, and the National Survey of School Finance. The authors of the newly published volume, Professor and Mrs. Norton, reach the conclusion that "some states have such slender resources that if they allocated to schools all the revenue which could be raised by a modern system of taxation levied at substantial rates they still could not provide satisfactory educational opportunities for all children." The implications of this finding are significant. It bears directly on the movement for federal aid to education.

This movement, as is generally known, has received much impetus in recent months. In the first place, there was introduced early in the present session of Congress a bill (the Harrison-Black-Fletcher bill) which authorizes for the fiscal year beginning July 1, 1937 the initial appropriation of \$100,000,000 for educational purposes to the several states in the Union on the basis of the number of children five to twenty years of age in each state. This amount would be increased annually by \$50,000,000 until it would amount to \$300,000,000 per year. Hearings have been held by committees of the two houses of Congress. The bill was reported favorably by the Senate Committee but late last week the House Committee voted unfavorably on the measure.

In the meantime President Roosevelt appointed last autumn a national committee, with Floyd W. Reeves as chairman, "to study the experience under the existing program of federal aid for vocational education, the relation of such training to general education and to prevailing economic and social conditions, and the extent of the need for an expanded program." Recently the President enlarged this committee by the appointment of four additional members, including Frank P.

Graham, Luther Gulick, Charles H. Judd, and the President of the Council.

Once more, therefore, eleven years after the National Advisory Committee under the direction of Henry Suzzalo submitted its well-known report, there is to be further study of the problem of federal aid to education. Fortunate is it, indeed, that since the publication of that report, there is available today (largely because of the American Council) far more information for the solution of this much debated problem than there was at that time. The experience of the federal government in various ventures with important educational implications incident to the depression may also supply some interesting suggestions. Nevertheless, those who have accepted responsibility for service on this committee will need your wisdom and assistance if progress is to be made in this area.

GOVERNMENT AND EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION

At the present time, as most of you know, there is located in Chicago the Public Administration Clearing House, which has associated with it in the same building a group of fourteen organizations and associations representing various phases of state and local government. Examples of these organizations are the American Public Welfare Association, the Civil Service Assembly, the Council of State Governments, the Municipal Finance Officers' Association, and the like. It is to be remembered that these are all organizations composed of public officials. Each organization is quite independent of the others but constant association of the administrative staffs with one another brings about a very gratifying amount of cooperative research and general promotion. Already these cooperative ventures are beginning to elevate the character of and to increase the cooperation among these public services back home. A good beginning has been made in the direction of economy and efficiency in government and toward the professionalization of state and local administrative personnel.

Where does education fit into such a program? Tradi-

tionally education has sought to secure complete separation from government. The privately controlled college with the most extensive powers and exemptions in its charter is regarded as fortunate. The state university wants a governing board of members with long terms as a protection against the ravages of politically minded governors. So, too, the local public school system has built up in most places a system of administration and a guarantee of financial support quite separate and apart from the several governmental units. All these provisions and many more have grown out of bitter experiences in the past. History confirms my belief in the desirability of the continued separation of the administration and financial support of education from that of government. Yet, as another speaker on our program will doubtless point out, education and government must go to the same source for financial support. Both are concerned with a multitude of similar problems—health, recreation, the purchase of coal and supplies, the erection of buildings, and other matters of common interest. It would be both short-sighted and lacking in civic virtue for the schools to refuse to cooperate with governmental agencies on such matters of mutual concern.

These observations serve as an introduction to the fact that the Council, through the Problems and Plans Committee and the Committee on Government and Educational Organization, whose chairman is Albert B. Meredith, has been giving considerable attention during the past few months to the possibility of greater cooperation between educational and governmental administration. Harvey H. Davis of Ohio State University has completed a very interesting study for the Council in which he points out the possibility of providing funds for the employment of full-time secretaries for a number of organizations composed of public education officials and of locating them in the new building of the Public Administration Clearing House. What interesting, what significant outcomes, for example, might come out of cooperative efforts and studies between the National Association of Chief State School Officers so financed and the American Legislators As-

sociation on the one hand, and the National Association of State Universities on the other! If these educational secretariats proved useful doubtless the respective organizations would soon find a way of making them self-supporting. I am convinced that the suggestion has much merit and I trust that a way may be found to give it a thorough trial.

INTERNATIONAL ASPECTS OF EDUCATION

The Committee on International Aspects of Education, of which I. L. Kandel is chairman, has held no meetings during the year just closed. This does not imply, however, that the Council's contacts with various international organizations and movements in education have not continued in vigorous manner. In July 1936, the Vice President, Mr. Marsh, served as a delegate to the Fifth International Conference on Public Instruction called by the International Bureau of Education in Geneva. Charles F. Hoban, Jr., who has been in charge of the motion picture project during the past eight months, will soon go to Europe for the purpose of studying the use of motion pictures in the school systems of various countries, including France, Italy, Germany, and England. The President of the Council expects to spend most of the month of July in Paris participating in the international conference of the various National Committees on Intellectual Cooperation, and the international conferences on primary, secondary, and higher education. A paper will be presented to the Conference on Higher Education on "The Rôle of the University in the Modern World." Other papers having to do with objective writing in American history textbooks and a résumé of the work of the American Youth Commission and other organizations interested in the reorganization of secondary education are being prepared for the international conference on secondary education.

There can be no question of the value of international contacts in education. For years these contacts have consisted chiefly in the interchange of college teachers and students between this and other countries. At the present time the num-

ber of foreign students—chiefly from Europe, South America, and the Orient—enrolled in the colleges and universities of the United States is approximately 9,000. It is estimated that 10,000 American students are attending universities abroad. It would be difficult indeed to overemphasize the value of these exchanges of college teachers and students in developing friendship and goodwill between the United States and foreign countries.

In my opinion there are other possible forms of cooperation in international education, comparable in importance to the exchange of college students and teachers, which ought to be encouraged. I refer, for example, to the development of methods of exchanging important documents related to educational policy between interested teachers and educational administrators in the United States and foreign countries. Many documents of first-rate consequence which are produced in foreign countries have a direct bearing on our educational problems and would be extremely useful, but they are known only to the relatively few educators in the United States who make it their chief business to keep up with educational developments abroad.

In the same way there should be more opportunity for leading school administrators in this country to come into frequent contact with educational practice abroad. The whole life and educational philosophy of Horace Mann was deeply influenced by his foreign contacts and familiarity with European educational philosophy and practice. School administrators of the present day could shake themselves loose from a good deal of provincialism if they had more opportunity to participate in international conferences on education. The International Bureau of Education at Geneva offers such an opportunity. The United States should join it at once.

Of course, I am thinking not only of the inevitable benefits in school practice growing out of contacts with educators abroad but the much more important goal of international goodwill. If peace ever comes to the world it will not be through mad armament races and the negotiations of weary

diplomats but through the humble efforts of school teachers and administrators creating an international habit of mind in thousands of little schoolrooms throughout the world.

III. PROJECTS UNDER THE AUSPICES OF THE COUNCIL

The summary of the activities of certain of the regular committees of the Council, which I have just presented, indicates the character of work in which they have been engaged during the past year. I am certain that you will agree with me when I say that we are all deeply indebted to the men and women who serve so unselfishly throughout the years. It is because of their work that the Council is able to make its contributions to the improvement of education.

In the next section, I should like to report on certain functioning services which have been developed under the auspices of the Council. These, too, are administered under the direction of committees.

THE FINANCIAL ADVISORY SERVICE

Last year after discussing the various federal tax measures in relation to the financial stability of the colleges and universities, I stated that the effects of the depression on the life and fortunes of the higher institutions were not only severe but predicted that such effects would be "of long duration." Through the work of the Financial Advisory Service, we now have chapter and verse for this statement.

The Financial Advisory Service of the Council has just completed a careful study of the income from and investment of the endowment funds of colleges and universities during the ten years from 1926 to 1935, inclusive. The forty-five institutions which were considered hold approximately 40 per cent of all the endowment funds for colleges and universities in the country. This study shows that from 1931 to 1935 there was a decline of approximately 15 per cent in the amount of income from endowments received by these institutions as a group. The most striking feature of the report is, however, the difference in the average of the individual rates of return

earned by the institutions with large endowments as against those with small endowments. While the average rate of return in the institutions with large endowments declined 20 per cent, the rate received by the institutions with small endowments declined 36 per cent, or nearly twice as much. It has been a long, long struggle to build up college endowments. How to invest safely what has been secured so as to produce any income of consequence has rather suddenly become a problem in all types of higher institutions, both large and small.

There is no present indication that this situation will change for the better in the early future. As pointed out by Trevor Arnett recently in a study for the General Education Board, this situation, together with other factors, raises "grave problems which must be satisfactorily solved if the endowed institution is to continue as an important factor in higher education." Indeed the economic setting in which the privately controlled colleges and universities now operate has changed in so many ways in recent years as to make it highly desirable that there should be a thorough and comprehensive study of the economic forces affecting the present and future development of the privately endowed college or university. A serious investigation of the problem would involve consideration of two aspects of the situation. The first aspect would deal with certain general economic problems such as the future disposition of the profits of industry; the level of real wages; the federal policy affecting the rate of capital return. All of these considerations are related closely to the economic dilemma of higher education. The second aspect of the study would deal with problems specifically related to colleges and universities, such as: competition between state-supported and privately endowed institutions for students; the recent gestures toward taxation of college and university property; the implications of taxation on gifts and bequests; federal and state aid to students and institutions. These and a whole host of related matters need careful investigation.

We cannot afford to have the efforts of the privately controlled institutions, upon which we depend so largely for social

guidance, weakened and dissipated through legislation or the force of economic circumstances. It would be relatively easy to reduce them to such a state of financial distress as to render government aid and control inevitable. Such a state of affairs is, I am convinced, neither necessary nor desirable. Pending such a comprehensive study as I have indicated, the Financial Advisory Service will keep the situation under close observance.

The continuance of the work of the Financial Advisory Service was made possible through a two-year grant of \$16,000 per annum for the fiscal years 1936-37 and 1937-38. In order to work in sufficiently close contact with institutions so that the Service might have the assurance that its program was both practical and sound, an Advisory Committee was appointed. This committee, headed by Lloyd Morey, comptroller of the University of Illinois, consists of the business officers of seven colleges and universities, a college president, and a professor of education.

The results of studies of general problems of financial and business administration of colleges and universities have been made available through the publication of eight bulletins and six magazine articles. The bulletins were distributed free of charge by the Financial Advisory Service to all institutions of higher education in the country. An accounting manual designed for the smaller colleges is now in preparation.

The Service not only took the initiative in proposing the organization of a regional association of business officers of colleges and universities on the Pacific Coast, but also held an accounting conference for institutions in the southeastern states in cooperation with the Southern Association of College and University Business Officers, and held a similar conference for the Catholic colleges and universities in cooperation with the National Catholic Educational Association. It has provided speakers for the meetings of fifteen educational associations.

In cooperation with the American Association of Teachers Colleges, the Service is making a study of the financial account-

ing and reporting problems peculiar to teachers colleges, to the end of obtaining some uniformity in the requirements made on these institutions by the several state agencies. A similar study is being instituted for junior colleges in cooperation with the American Association of Junior Colleges. The Service has worked in close cooperation with the United States Office of Education and with state agencies to obtain some uniformity in the financial reports requested of institutions. It has also cooperated with other groups in watching federal legislation for bills of an economic or financial nature that might affect colleges and universities.

Less spectacular and well known, but probably as fruitful as any of the activities of the Service, are its contacts with individual institutions. As many as 124 colleges have asked for and received recommendations for the improvement of their financial reports. Suggestions or references for the solution of a variety of other financial problems have been submitted to some 200 institutions during the existence of the Service. Conferences have been held with the presidents and business officers of 44 institutions concerning their individual financial and accounting problems. There is abundant testimony that this service has been of inestimable value, especially to the smaller institutions which can ill afford to engage the services of financial counsel.

EDUCATIONAL MOTION PICTURES

Since the annual meeting of the Council in 1936, a standing committee on Motion Pictures in Education has been appointed to direct the activities of the Educational Motion Picture Project. Ben G. Graham, superintendent of the Pittsburgh public schools, is chairman.

From the time of its inception in 1935 the Educational Motion Picture Project has undertaken a clearing house function for the wider and more effective use of films in the classroom. During the past year activities have been concentrated on (1) the development of conferences and programs related to the preparation of teachers in the use of motion pictures and

other modern teaching aids, (2) the preparation of materials for publication, and (3) the initiation of studies related to problems of motion pictures in education.

During the latter part of 1936 and early in 1937 conferences on the problems of teacher training in modern teaching aids were held at Milwaukee in cooperation with the University of Wisconsin and at New York City in cooperation with Teachers College, Columbia University. These conferences were attended by representatives of teacher training institutions of those regions and others responsible for teacher preparation in the use of visual aids.

The Educational Motion Picture Project participated in an intensive training course in the use of motion pictures and other teaching materials at the School of Adult Education of the General Extension Division of the University of Florida. One hundred and twenty teachers from various school districts in Florida enrolled for this training program.

The Educational Motion Picture Project has undertaken a publication program to facilitate the use of motion pictures and other teaching materials in the classroom. Early in the summer there will be made available a volume of digests of literature on various phases of the motion picture in education, including administration, teacher preparation, methods of use, research, production, evaluation, etc.

Two of the American Council on Education Studies devoted to the motion picture in education have been published and are available for distribution. These are *The Motion Picture in Education: Its Status and Its Needs*, a report of the development of the Educational Motion Picture Project by the Committee on Motion Pictures in Education, and *Teaching with Motion Pictures: A Handbook of Administrative Practice*, by Edgar Dale and Lloyd Ramseyer, containing practical suggestions for the administrator and teacher in the administration of a visual instruction program and the proper use of visual materials in the classroom.

With the cooperation of the United States Office of Education there was published by the Council in the fall of 1936

the *National Visual Education Directory* which lists the type of equipment owned and the directors of visual instruction of school districts in all states of the Union. Through the financial assistance of the Council an interpretative study of the data collected in the national visual survey is now being made by the United States Office of Education.

Three research studies have been undertaken by members of the administrative staff of the Educational Motion Picture Project on problems directly related to the use of films in the classroom. One of these is a study of patterns of distribution of educational motion pictures throughout the United States. Another study deals with evaluation procedures which are employed by school districts for the selection and the use of educational films. A third study will inquire into the procedures used in Western European countries in the educational motion picture field. France, Italy, Germany, and England will be visited this summer by Charles F. Hoban, Jr., who is in charge of the Educational Motion Picture Project.

THE AMERICAN YOUTH COMMISSION

The most extended project being carried on under the auspices of the Council is the American Youth Commission, now approaching completion of the first two years of its five-year program. The chairman of the Commission of sixteen members is the Honorable Newton D. Baker, and Homer P. Rainey, formerly president of Bucknell University, is Director.

During the past year the American Youth Commission has developed numerous activities. It has completed an Inventory of On-Coming Youth in Pennsylvania, which includes extensive information on 30,000 youths in that state. It has inaugurated several major investigations as follows: studies in Maryland; Dallas, Texas; and Muncie, Indiana, all of which are designed to secure a comprehensive picture of the needs of youth, and the degree to which the various and numerous agencies serving youth are fulfilling their obligations. When

these studies are complete, they will furnish the Commission with the finest body of data available on the problems and needs of American youth.

The Commission also has under way several extensive studies: an evaluation of the Civilian Conservation Corps; a study of the health of college students and the provisions which colleges and universities are making for the health and needs of their students; and a study of the needs of youth in small rural villages which is nearing completion. A study of the distribution of the youth population of the entire country has been completed. Recently the Commission sent a representative to Europe to make a review of how certain of the European countries are meeting the problems of vocational education.

In addition to the activities specifically mentioned above, the Commission is continuously studying numerous aspects of the youth problem and is cooperating with many agencies relative to desirable programs for youth.

During the year two significant conferences were held under the auspices of the Commission: (1) a conference among leaders of industry, business, education, and social work, to consider the problems of unemployment and vocational adjustment of youth; (2) a conference, under joint auspices with the University of Michigan, of approximately 200 lay and professional leaders in that state to consider the problems of secondary education in a rapidly changing society.

The Youth Commission is now moving definitely toward a program of action, experimentation, and demonstration in several fields, particularly in the fields of the vocational adjustment of youth and general secondary education.

The Commission will soon issue several major publications as follows:

What is the Youth Problem? by the Director and staff of the Commission.

Secondary Education for Youth in Modern America, by Harl R. Douglass.

Youth Serving Organizations, by M. M. Chambers.

A Study of the European Work Camps, by Kenneth Holland.

Studies of the Needs of Youth in Maryland, Dallas, and Muncie, by the staffs of each study.

Occupational Adjustment of American Youth, by M. R. Trabue and the Director of the Commission.

As I have pointed out before, the work of the American Youth Commission is replete with the greatest possibilities. Chief among these is a new conception of secondary education. With two-thirds of American youth of high school age enrolled in school we have failed, except in spots, to frame a curriculum suited to their individual needs; we are at sea concerning the place of vocational education in the educational system; our education for the practice of democracy is far from satisfactory; the reorganization of secondary education to include the junior college is a reality only in California. If the American Youth Commission can point the way on these important problems it will perform a great national service.

But it should do more. Young people have a right to healthy bodies and wholesome recreation. They ought not to be driven into crime by unwholesome economic and social conditions. Especially, as the National Youth Administration has demonstrated, they want an opportunity to work and to be of use in the world. If private employment is to be reserved largely for our increasing adult population, as seems altogether possible in modern social life, young people should not become the innocent victims of such a development. They should be able to secure both the satisfaction of earning something and the educative value of an actual work experience, if not in private employment then through some form of public service. The Commission has a great obligation to point the way in this difficult and complex field. Indeed some combination of education and work experience seems to me to be the answer for most of our young people from seventeen to twenty-one years of age.

IV

CONSIDERATIONS FOR THE FUTURE

My remarks so far have been in the nature of a progress report of committees and projects with programs rather clearly defined. However, may I remind you that the objectives of the Council as stated in the constitution include the following words, "initiate, promote, and carry out such systematic studies, cooperative experiments, conferences, and other similar enterprises as may be required for the public welfare."

This objective lays upon the Council the responsibility of continuously surveying the whole field of education to determine in what manner it may best contribute to educational advancement. As a conclusion to this report I should like to mention several widely divergent problems which the Council has been considering during the past year.

PROBLEMS AND PLANS IN EDUCATION

The Committee on Problems and Plans in Education was established in March 1930, as a center for the discussion of major problems in American education. From that time to the present, the committee has played a major part in investigating and formulating the projects which the Council has considered. From the beginning S. P. Capen, the first director of the Council, has served as chairman. Owing to the amendment to the constitution three years ago making it impossible for a member of this committee to succeed himself at the expiration of his term, Chancellor Capen retires from the committee this year. I am sure that the members of the Council realize their great indebtedness to him not only for his distinguished service as director, but for his noteworthy contribution as chairman of this very important committee.

During the year just closed the Problems and Plans Committee has given its attention from time to time to the following matters:

1. The education of teachers.

2. A national system of fellowships in education.
3. Research in education.
4. Educational secretariats at the Public Administration Clearing House in Chicago.
5. Federal relations to education.
6. Regional cooperation among institutions of higher education.
7. A study of business education on the collegiate level.
8. College student personnel problems.
9. Tax legislation and college endowments.
10. The work of the American Youth Commission.

Many of these matters have been commented on in their appropriate places throughout the report. However, no report such as this could attempt to give due credit to the deliberations of the group who make up the membership of the *Committee on Problems and Plans in Education*. In addition to the time-consuming consideration of documents referred to them between meetings, they have given six full days during the past year to the discussion of the above and other problems pertinent to American education.

EDUCATIONAL BROADCASTING

During the past year the staff of the Council has devoted considerable time to the educational implications of radio. The First National Conference on Educational Broadcasting was held in Washington last December 10-12 at the Mayflower Hotel. The President of the Council served as chairman of the conference, and the Vice President as executive secretary. The program participants numbered 150 speakers, in addition to many others who took part in the informal discussion meetings. The registration, numbering more than 700 persons, included 227 from national educational organizations, 141 from colleges, universities, and school systems, 109 from departments of the government, 59 from commercial broadcasting companies and agencies, 33 from libraries and museums, and 25 representing 17 foreign countries.

The purpose of the conference was to enable the large num-

ber of persons interested in educational broadcasting to review the achievements and to discuss means by which radio might become a more effective instrument in education, both formal and informal; to serve as a clearing house for information on the latest techniques and professional developments in educational broadcasting; and to enable persons representing all phases of the subject to exchange ideas and experiences.

There is abundant evidence that this purpose was realized. Members will be gratified that the Council is having a part in promoting the more effective use of the radio as an instrument for formal and informal education.

BUSINESS EDUCATION

At the request of the American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business, the Council has taken an interest in the desire of that Association for a study of business education at the college level. In numbers of students and of staff, the collegiate schools of business present the largest segment of American universities not yet subjected to comprehensive and critical scrutiny. Medicine, law, engineering—these and other phases of higher education have in their turn benefited by searching examination into aims, methods, curriculum, personnel, and product.

With the approval of the Problems and Plans Committee, therefore, the President of the Council invited representatives of the American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business to a two-day conference last November at which a tentative plan was drawn for a preliminary study for collegiate training for business. In December, the Executive Committee of that Association approved the plan and made some portions of it the basis of the program of the annual meeting of the Association last March.

Arrangements are now under consideration for something in the nature of a self-appraisal of each school. It is believed that this procedure will be fruitful since it involves widespread responsibility for and participation in the study. The long experience of the Council in projects of this sort will be made

fully available to the American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business.

PERSONNEL WORK IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

Last year when the Council's new Committee on Measurement and Guidance was established it was agreed that it should devote itself to the large and important field of developing measures for ability, characteristics, and achievement of individual students, and such instruments of guidance as grow directly out of evaluation. This assignment while quite overwhelming in size is nevertheless only a part of the functions formerly undertaken by the Committee on Personnel Methods. In general it does not include the whole field of personnel work in colleges and universities to which the early committee contributed so notably through L. B. Hopkins' survey of personnel work in colleges and universities, the cumulative record cards, the vocational monographs and the Cooperative Test Service. Eleven years have passed since the Hopkins survey. The Cumulative Record Card, while still widely used, is in need of revision. A number of national organizations interested in the general field of personnel work, have been organized and developed. The whole personnel movement in colleges and universities has developed rapidly, so rapidly indeed as to be in great need of clarification and coordination.

This was the subject of a recent conference of sixteen leaders in personnel work in colleges and universities called by the Council. The philosophy accepted by the conference "imposes upon educational institutions the obligation to consider the student as a whole—his intellectual capacity and achievement, his emotional make-up, his physical condition, his social relationships, his vocational aptitudes and skills, his moral and religious values, his economic resources, and his aesthetic appreciations. It puts emphasis, in brief, upon the development of the student as a person rather than upon his intellectual training alone."

Nevertheless, the conference identified a large number of student personnel functions which it regarded as necessary to

the well-rounded development of college and university students. It was believed that many of these functions can be and are being carried on by members of the faculty who in the face of mass education and the worship of subject matter continue those close personal relationships with individual students generally held to be more characteristic of faculty members in earlier years. The great need of the present day, so the members of the conference held, is a thorough acceptance of the personnel point of view toward individual students throughout the entire institution and the organization of this work on a simple and effective basis suited to the situation in each institution.

After much discussion the conference recommended the writing and publication of a short volume on the college student and his problems; a re-examination of student personnel work along the lines of the study carried out by L. B. Hopkins in 1926; a series of handbooks on particular student personnel functions such as admission practices, health service, vocational guidance, measurement programs, and the like; the development of aptitude tests, diagnostic techniques and instruments for measuring social maturity; the gathering and publication of occupational information of interest to college students; a study of student out-of-class relationships; and a study of the various ways and means of aiding students financially with resulting effects on the students.

It was recommended that a part of this program be undertaken by the Council's Committee on Measurement and Guidance, a part by the National Occupational Conference, and a part by a new commission to be appointed by the American Council on Education. Obviously, before all or any portion of the recommendations can be carried out it would be necessary to seek a considerable subvention from one or more of the educational foundations.

TEACHER EDUCATION

This year we celebrate the one hundredth anniversary of the election of Horace Mann to the newly created office of

Secretary of the Massachusetts State Board of Education. The occasion has meaning to us not only because it ultimately resulted in the provision for a chief state school officer in every other state in the Union, but because it was the beginning of a glorious campaign for the improvement of schools and the development of an informed public opinion as to the significance of education in a democratic society.

Horace Mann was a very discerning individual of great cosmopolitan interests. These interests comprehended the importance of schoolhouses and textbooks, indeed every mechanical and physical aid to learning then known to the world, but he realized that all of these things combined were small in importance compared to the place occupied by capable teachers.

From those early beginnings we have developed in this country a great system for the education of teachers which includes several hundred publicly controlled teachers colleges and normal schools, major divisions in every state and endowed university, and considerable attention in almost every college of liberal arts in this country. There are indeed very few higher institutions in the United States so specialized in character as not to be drawn into the program of teacher training.

No one should have anything but admiration for the remarkable development of teacher education which has taken place in this country within the space of a short century. It has been a development of which we may well feel proud. Nevertheless any catalog of accomplishments in this area of higher education will also remind us sharply of a large number of deficiencies. In common with most other units in education, the institution for the education of teachers, including the liberal arts college, has not defined its objectives carefully, the student body is not selected with sufficient care, and is often below average, the faculty is frequently ill prepared for its task and does not know actual school conditions, the curriculum makes little provision for preparing prospective teachers to diagnose individual differences in children, the insti-

tution is often poorly administered and inadequately supported, the teacher certification system is utterly chaotic and out of date. To these could easily be added a much longer list of deficiencies which should drive us forthwith to the conclusion that no other aspect of higher education is so much in need of study and reorganization as the system of educating teachers. Certainly something ought to be done about it.

In January a year ago, the Council began to give the problem of teacher education serious consideration. There was first an extended discussion in the Problems and Plans Committee, which was followed by a series of conferences in which the situation was reviewed and suggestions made as to possible ways of attacking the problem. These informal conferences were attended by representatives from teachers colleges, liberal arts colleges, state and endowed universities, secondary schools, and by city and state superintendents. A number of these representatives were also identified prominently with the work of the National Education Association, the American Association of School Administrators, the Educational Policies Commission, the New York Regents Survey of Education, the American Youth Commission, the Association of American Colleges, the American Association of Teachers Colleges, and the Progressive Education Association.

In the meantime, Payson Smith, formerly State Commissioner of Education in Massachusetts, and Jesse B. Sears of Leland Stanford University, in succession joined the staff of the Council temporarily in order to push along the consideration of this important matter. Later Dr. Smith served as chairman of a committee which was responsible for formulating and recommending a report. This report was reviewed and accepted by the Problems and Plans Committee at its meeting February 5 last.

Early in the consideration of this matter the committee concluded that in view of the recent extensive study by the United States Office of Education and other state-wide studies, there was now no occasion for an extensive factual survey of

teacher education. However, the committee believed that through the information now in hand and through cooperative study and experimentation with teacher education institutions, it should be possible to arrive at solutions of the major problems one by one, in the field of teacher education.

What we seem to need is an authoritative statement of basic policy in teacher education. Such a statement, the committee feels, will grow out of cooperative study, experimentation, and the deliberations of a representative commission of leading educators. The contemporaneous study of the same problems in a large number of teacher education institutions should not only be helpful to such a commission in reaching conclusions, but should insure the widest consideration of and action upon its findings. It is recommended that the commission be appointed for a period of five years with adequate financial support.

Whether this proposal will elicit the necessary financial support in the early future is unknown. Certainly the problem of teacher education is of the widest possible interest and significance. I can think of no subject more nearly of common concern to the entire membership of the Council, constituent, associate, and institutional. I trust that all of the members will give the problem extensive attention, for it must be remembered that a situation which so permeates the entire educational system will not be solved in a day or through any single effort. Indeed one of the Council's main obligations doubtless consists in securing the widest possible consideration of the teacher education problem with the hope that through a large number and variety of efforts we may make rapid and substantial progress toward the more effective preparation of teachers and the consequent improvement of the educational process.

SUMMARY

From this report it will be seen that the Council has now embarked on the consideration of a large and varied number of problems at all levels of education. This is in accordance

with the plans made three years ago. It is my hope that the results of the Council's work may be of increasing value to all of its members. Certainly it continues to be a great pleasure to me personally to work toward that end.

May 7, 1937

GEORGE F. ZOOK

APPENDIX

Publications

American Council on Education

May 1936-May 1937

Books

	Copies
1. <i>American Universities and Colleges</i> edited by Clarence Stephen Marsh. Third Edition, 1936. May 1936.	3,500
2. <i>The Construction and Use of Achievement Examinations</i> edited by Hawkes, Lindquist, and Mann for the Committee on Manual of Examinations; published by Houghton Mif- flin Company. July 1936.	
3. <i>Some Features of State Educational-Administrative Organization</i> by M. M. Chambers. Committee on Government and Educational Organization; issued in planograph edition. May 1936.	400
4. <i>National Visual Education Directory</i> compiled by Cline M. Koon and Allen W. Noble. Educational Motion Picture Project. September 1936.	1,000
5. <i>Fifth Yearbook of School Law</i> compiled by M. M. Chambers. April 1937.	1,000
6. <i>Wealth, Children and Education</i> by John K. Norton and Margaret Norton. Published by Bureau of Publications, Teachers College. February 1937.	
7. <i>Libraries of Washington</i> compiled by David Spence Hill. Published by American Library Association. June 1936.	
8. <i>Secondary Education for Youth in Modern America</i> by Harl R. Douglass. Prepared for the American Youth Commission. May 1937.	2,500

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| | Copies |
| 9. <i>Youth Serving Organizations</i> | 1,000 |
| compiled by M. M. Chambers. | |
| Prepared for the American Youth Commission. | |
| May 1937. | |
| 10. <i>A Spanish Syntax List</i> | |
| by Hayward Keniston. | |
| Prepared for the Committee on Modern Languages; published by Henry Holt and Co. April 1937. | |

PAMPHLETS AND MAGAZINES

- | | |
|--|---------------|
| 1. <i>The Educational Record</i> | 3,000 |
| July 1936; October 1936; January 1937; April 1937. | an |
| The format of the <i>Record</i> was revised in the January 1937 issue. | issue |
| <i>The Educational Record Supplement, No. 10</i> | 4,500 |
| October 1936. Report of the Fifth Educational Conference. | |
| <i>Reprints from The Educational Record</i> | circa. 19,000 |
| 2. <i>American Council on Education Studies:</i> | |
| Series I. Reports of Committees of the Council | |
| <i>The Testing Movement</i> | 1,000 |
| Vol. I. No. 1. February 1937. | |
| Report of the Committee on Review of the Testing Movement. | |
| <i>Government and Educational Organization</i> | 1,000 |
| Vol. I. No. 2. April 1937. | |
| Report of the Committee on Government and Educational Organization. | |
| Series II. Motion Pictures in Education | |
| <i>The Motion Picture in Education: Its Status and Its Needs</i> | 1,500 |
| Vol. I. No. 1. April 1937. | |
| Report of the Committee on Motion Pictures in Education. | |
| <i>Teaching with Motion Pictures: A Handbook of Administrative Practice</i> | 5,000 |
| Vol. I. No. 2. April 1937. | |
| by Edgar Dale and Lloyd Ramseyer. | |
| Series III. Financial Advisory Service | |
| <i>Current Investment Practices of Colleges and Universities</i> | 2,000 |
| Vol. I, No. 4. May 1936. | |
| by George E. Van Dyke. | |
| <i>Current Practices of Colleges and Universities in Obtaining Professional Counsel and Services</i> | 2,000 |
| Vol. I, No. 5. May 1936. | |
| by George E. Van Dyke. | |

	Copies
<i>Training for College and University Business Administration</i> Vol. I, No. 7. April 1937. prepared by the staff and advisory committee. April 1937.	2,000
<i>Endowment Income and Investments, 1926-35</i> Vol. I, No. 8. April 1937. by A. Robert Seass. April 1937.	2,000
3. <i>American Council on Education: History and Activities</i> Third Edition. November 1936.	2,000
4. <i>Activities of the American Youth Commission</i> published by the Commission. January 1937. Reprinted March 1937.	10,000
5. <i>American Youth Commission Bulletin</i>	1,800 a month
6. <i>The Cooperative Achievement Tests: A Handbook Describing Their Purpose, Content and Interpretation</i> published by the Cooperative Test Service. October 1936.	
7. <i>Bulletin of Information on the International Test Scoring Machine</i> published by the Cooperative Test Service. October 1936.	

TESTS AND PERSONNEL TOOLS

1. 1935 edition, <i>American Council on Education Psychological Examination for College Freshmen</i>	35,000
1936 edition, <i>American Council on Education Psychological Examination for College Freshmen</i>	300,000
2. 1935 edition, <i>American Council on Education Psychological Examination for High School Students</i>	24,000
1936 edition, <i>American Council on Education Psychological Examination for High School Students</i>	70,000
3. <i>Cumulative Record Folder for College Students</i>	17,000
<i>Cumulative Record Folder for Secondary Students</i>	13,000
<i>Cumulative Record Cards for Elementary and Secondary Students</i>	15,000
4. <i>Personality Rating Scales</i>	18,000
5. <i>Cooperative Achievement Tests</i>	circa. 750,000
Revised Series Form N	
8 forms Foreign Language	
3 forms Mathematics	
2 forms Social Studies	
4 forms Natural Sciences	

17 forms, total revised series

Regular Series

- 8 forms Foreign Language
- 3 forms English
- 2 forms Literature
- 6 forms Mathematics
- 4 forms High School Natural Science
- 10 forms College Natural Science
- 4 forms Social Studies
- 4 forms Contemporary Affairs and General Culture

41 forms, total regular series

58 forms, grand total

These Twenty Years

By JOHN H. MACCRACKEN

PRESIDENT ZOOK, a trained historian, in asking a layman to comment on these twenty years, doubtless had in mind the metaphysical theory of how philosophy of history comes into being. First, you must participate yourself directly in the experience; second, you must achieve that divorce from the experience through more or less catastrophic events which leads to reflection on the experience, until you attain to the third spiritual state in which you appose and oppose the direct participation in the historical order and the divorce from it, and so arrive at a particularly acute consciousness, a particular aptitude for speculation, and for what Berdyaev in his *Meaning of History* calls "a corresponding aspiration towards the mysteries of the historical."

Certainly no historian with the whole range of time to choose from could pick twenty years more significant, more crowded with action, more replete with the stuff of drama than 1917 to 1937.

The American Council on Education, a child of this amazing era, owes its origin, as does so much else, to the World War and to the dislocations, needs, and opportunities created by America's entry into the conflict. On January 10, 1918, the three-year-old Association of American Colleges held its annual meeting in Chicago in the midst of a blizzard. My train from Atlanta was a half day behind schedule. Dr. Samuel P. Capen's train from Washington did not arrive until after adjournment. The Friday night session was discontinued because the room was too cold for comfort. Under these conditions it fell to my lot to read a paper on "Pooling of College Interests as a War Measure"¹ which began:

There is a widespread feeling that American education is not organized to make its greatest contribution to the war. The experience of

¹ *Bulletin of the Association of American Colleges*, IV (April 1918), 66.

the last six months has shown that the need is twofold: first, the need on the part of the government; second, the need on the part of the colleges—that in both cases the need is not so much for unity of spirit and purpose as for coordination, which is unity at work.

The government at Washington needs during the war an administrator of education His function will be to coordinate the demands made upon education by the government in the prosecution of the war.

The colleges need a War Council This board ought to represent the colleges as distinct from the government, though in hearty sympathy and cooperation with it. It ought to have national representatives at Washington to give effective expression to any questions of national policy upon which the organizations represented may agree.

Dr. Robert L. Kelly opened the discussion by quoting Thomas Carlyle's remark that a man's conviction increases infinitely when he finds another man entertaining the same opinion, and closed with Kipling's verse:

It ain't the guns nor armament
Nor funds that they can pay,
But the close cooperation
That makes them win the day.

At the same meeting a letter was presented from the president of the Association of American Universities inviting the Association of American Colleges to appoint a representative to a delegated meeting of the representatives of a half dozen national educational associations looking toward cooperative action. The invitation was formally accepted and the Association's newly elected president, Donald J. Cowling, president of Carleton College, was appointed to represent the Association at such meeting.

On adjournment, accordingly, members of the executive committees of the Association of American Colleges, Association of American Universities, Catholic Educational Association, and National Association of State Universities met in Chicago January 12-13 and reached the conclusion that only by action of the President of the United States could all edu-

cational forces be brought together in effective cooperation. This view was communicated to the secretary of the interior, Franklin K. Lane. The government was not prepared to move in the matter. The colleges, however, were not discouraged. Americans in those days were accustomed to do things for themselves with or without government aid.

A good many people and a number of associations had already given a good deal of thought to the problems involved and had arrived at a fairly clear idea of what they wanted. When, therefore, the Conference of Educational Associations assembled later in the same month, on January 30, at the Cosmos Club in Washington, it was possible for their Committee on Organization to draft a plan and secure its adoption with little delay and remarkable unanimity of opinion.

The name was to be "Emergency Council on Education." The object was defined as "to place the resources of the educational institutions of our country more completely at the disposal of the national government and its departments, to the end that through an understanding cooperation their patriotic services may be augmented, a continuous supply of educated men may be maintained, and preparation for the great responsibilities of the reconstruction period following the war may be anticipated."

President Donald J. Cowling was made chairman and President P. L. Campbell of the University of Oregon was the first secretary-treasurer. The additional members of the Executive Committee were to be Dean Herman V. Ames, secretary of the Association of American Universities, Dr. Thomas E. Finegan, president of the Department of Superintendence, Dr. Thomas J. Shahan, president of the Catholic Educational Association. Each association was assessed one hundred dollars for necessary incidental expenses, and the new organization was not only launched but under sail.

We were peculiarly fortunate at that first meeting in having at command the wisdom, experience, and skill of two such clear-headed veteran organizers as H. W. Tyler and J. W. Crabtree. With so few precedents to guide, it would have

been easy to lay a crooked keel or construct a top-heavy craft that would soon have turned turtle. As it was, the main outlines of that original plan still serve. Membership consisted of eleven national associations represented at the meeting (Association of American Universities, Association of State Universities, Association of American Colleges, American Association of Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, Catholic Educational Association, Association of Urban Universities, National Education Association, N. E. A. National Council of Education, N. E. A. Department of Superintendence, American Association of University Professors, Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education). Three other associations were formally invited at this preliminary meeting to become members (National Council of Normal School Principals, Association of American Medical Colleges, American Association for the Advancement of Science). It was suggested that the Council address the Secretary of the Interior with a view to securing official recognition and the cooperation of the then Bureau of Education. It was recommended that one member of the Executive Committee, preferably the chairman, be in continuous residence in Washington.

The group adjourned to secure official confirmation from their respective organizations and met again formally two months later at the New Willard Hotel March 26-27, 1918. All of the original eleven associations were represented by official delegates, except the Association of American Agricultural Colleges, which had not yet had opportunity to take official action but which was represented unofficially by Dean H. L. Russell of the University of Wisconsin. Two of the three additional associations had officially accepted membership and appointed delegates, the National Council of Normal School Presidents and Principals and the Association of American Medical Colleges, and the third, the American Association for the Advancement of Science, was unofficially represented by Leonard P. Ayres. I find, to my surprise, that at that meeting I represented the Department of Superintendence as substitute for Superintendent Finegan, though

I reverted at later meetings to my official status as a delegate of the Association of American Colleges. The ad interim officers were confirmed.

The Council at once entered vigorously on its main purpose of coordination. It considered its relationship to the Joint Commission of the National Education Association and Department of Superintendence, and the chairman of the Joint Commission, Professor George D. Strayer, addressed the Council. It discussed relations to the Federal Board for Vocational Education, the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Schools, and the National Association of Corporation Schools.

It made the acquaintance of the War Department's Committee on Education and Special Training consisting of Colonel Hugh S. Johnson, Deputy Provost Marshal General, Lieutenant Colonel Robert I. Rees, of the General Staff of the Army, and Major Grenville Clark, of the Adjutant General's Office. It was addressed by Dr. Charles R. Mann, of the Civilian Advisory Board, and by Dr. Samuel P. Capen, representing the United States Bureau of Education. Dr. Mann suggested cooperative relationships with industrial schools, labor interests, and chambers of commerce. Dr. Capen offered the help of the Bureau of Education in preparing a survey of government educational activities. The meeting discussed the question of the draft age and the amendment of the Reserve Officers Training Corps Act, as proposed in the Chamberlain Bill. It appointed a subcommittee of three on International Relationships in Education composed of Herman V. Ames, John H. Wigmore, and H. W. Tyler. It approved the Association of American Colleges' plan for scholarships for one hundred French women, and interested itself in the invitation extended by the Council of National Defense to the governments of England, France, and Italy to send educational commissions to this country.

After that, events moved at a rapid rate in the educational world. The decision to lower the draft age and to make America's entire man power available at once seemed to

threaten the life of the colleges. How the secretary of war, Newton D. Baker, and Dr. Mann saved the colleges financially by setting up the Student Army Training Corps is another story.

Dr. Robert L. Kelly's campaign of propaganda was in full swing. Professor William H. Schofield had succeeded Dean Ames as chairman of the Committee on International Relations and with the help of President Cowling had organized programs for the reception of the French and English Educational Commissions, had worked out plans for an Institute of International Education, with an office in New York originally designed to operate as a division of the Council, had interested the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace and Carnegie Corporation in the project, but discovered that the Carnegie interests preferred, if they financed the project, to give it independent status. The name of the organization had been changed at a meeting in July from "Emergency Council on Education" to "American Council on Education" in view of the proposed international activities.

At a meeting of the Council held in Chicago November 11, 1918, Armistice Day, a special committee was appointed to consider the future organization of the Council. President William Lowe Bryan of Indiana University was chairman of the committee, but I find in the minutes that in his absence the speaker acting as chairman presented the committee's report to the Council. The discussion centered on the kind of office to be maintained in Washington, the size of budget that was feasible, and whether the Council could afford a full-time executive. As a method of financing, the plan of having a class of institutional members was agreed to on the motion of President John H. MacCracken, such members to be colleges or universities, normal schools, technical schools, or city school systems. These members would contribute not less than one hundred dollars a year to the Council.

At a subsequent meeting on December 6, held at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, a revised and expanded constitution was adopted. The constituent membership had now

increased to seventeen by the addition of the Association of Collegiate Schools of Architecture, the National Association of Corporation Schools, and the National Research Council. A finance committee was set up with President Cowling as chairman, and a nominating committee composed of Herman V. Ames, John H. MacCracken, W. O. Thompson, and H. W. Tyler was appointed to propose a full-time secretary.

The new organization had early faced the question of finance. In the minutes of the meeting of March 1918 it is recorded that after the adoption of a resolution authorizing the Executive Committee to rent such office rooms, to employ such office help, and to make such other expenditures as may seem necessary for carrying out the purposes of the Council, the question was raised: "How shall the Council secure adequate funds for carrying on its work?" It was pointed out that two ways were open; either to increase the membership fee of one hundred dollars or to secure voluntary gifts. Colonel Leonard P. Ayres testified that the amount required was likely to be large, that the Russell Sage Foundation had spent about \$8,000 in a year in its activities in Washington for a federal department of education. He said that he did not believe that it would be advisable for the Emergency Council to accept gifts at present from the General Education Board, the Rockefeller Foundation, or from the Russell Sage Foundation. President Cowling raised the question whether it would be better for the members of the Council to hold themselves individually responsible for securing adequate funds, or for the cooperating associations to be invited to furnish sufficient financial support to carry on the work. The discussion closed with President Campbell's suggestion that the whole matter rest for the present: "With the income already provided through the membership fees and a limited income in prospect from certain individuals already interested in our work, the way is open for a reasonable budget for the coming year."

Fortunately, the spirit of those war days was one of service. Ideas were more important than machinery to the leaders of

the movement. Executives were supplied on a voluntary basis or at the expense of their own organizations and institutions. Thus the new movement with its budget of \$2,000 began with faith that its five barley loaves and two small fishes could be multiplied to do the job. When the war was over President Cowling journeyed from university to university and from college to college and sold the principle "to each according to his ability, from each according to his means" as a basic method of financing the Council, so that with several universities contributing annually \$500 each, and no college less than \$100, the problem of finance was solved for several years on the scale of a budget of \$25,000 a year for operation. The Council began housekeeping in Rooms 308-311 in the Munsey Building, with Mrs. Grace Ontrich in charge of the office under the direction of President Campbell. Mrs. Ontrich is still with the Council and is the only person whose official services span the entire twenty years. To her watchful eye and firm hand is due in considerable measure the absence of red ink from the Council's ledgers these twenty years.

The rest is history.

I shall not attempt to catalog the activities of the Council through the years that follow. Excellent summaries have been prepared and published by the Council to which reference may be made. Our brief time this morning may be utilized perhaps to better advantage if we assume that you are familiar with these activities and are in position with this knowledge to consider what lessons we may draw from the experience of these two decades.

First, a few words on the leadership of these twenty years. The Council has been peculiarly fortunate in its leadership. The first year President Campbell gave the office a great deal of his time without remuneration. In the summer of 1918 President Cowling, combining the office of president of the Association of American Colleges with that of chairman of the Council, arranged to bring on from Chicago Dr. Robert L. Kelly, the newly elected executive secretary of the Association of American Colleges, to conduct for the Council's office

a campaign of publicity involving literally hundreds of thousands of printed sheets intended to offset the trend on the part of immature youth to desert the colleges prematurely and seek war service before the government was ready. When the Armistice came, and the Council was reorganized for peace, Dr. Kelly returned to Chicago to take up his permanent work as executive secretary of the Council of Church Boards of Education and of the Association of American Colleges, an office he is just relinquishing after these many years of notable service. The nominating committee chose as the Council's first full-time salaried executive Dr. Samuel P. Capen, who had worked closely with the organization from the beginning. At the end of three years Dr. Capen resigned to become chancellor of the University of Buffalo. Again I was asked to serve on the nominating committee and our choice fell on another man who had worked in close touch with the Council, Dr. Charles R. Mann. Reluctant to leave the War Department as long as there was opportunity for his work there to continue, Dr. Mann consented to combine the two jobs for a time and finally resigned from the War Department and for twelve years, more than half of its life, guided the destinies of the Council, bringing to his assistance first Dr. David A. Robertson of the University of Chicago as assistant director, and later myself as associate director. When Dr. Mann was made Director Emeritus in 1934, the Council for the third time robbed the government service of a valuable public official and reversed the tide which holds in other nations where officials usually demonstrate their efficiency in voluntary organizations and arrive eventually in governmental posts. This time, grown bolder, the Council took the United States commissioner of education himself, Dr. George F. Zook, to make him president of the Council, and the director of the educational program of the Civilian Conservation Corps, Dr. C. S. Marsh, to make him vice president. The years are thus divided into three eras of three, twelve, and three years, respectively. As all these leaders are alive, and two of them present, I do not enjoy the full freedom which most historians

enjoy in characterizing important reigns. The three are quite different men.

Capen, with the graceful tact of the diplomat and a fine sense of the dignity of institutions, secured recognition for the young upstart in the best academic circles. He organized an efficient office and staff so that his successor, on taking office, said: "It has been a revelation to discover the perfection of administrative skill with which the office has been run in the past." As a true inventor, Dr. Capen set up a tabernacle for which no specifications were available.

Mann, more the philosopher, but a philosopher with so firm a grasp on reality that even the hard-boiled War Department had given heed to his words and permitted the sun of reason to shine for a time where ordinarily it is not welcome; an administrator who, ignoring all the rules of efficiency that help the little man, came to the end of the day with the fullest basket of accomplishment, because to him little things were little things, easier to do than to fuss over, and the creation of new ideas worthy of incredible toil; a philosopher true to the definition of Thoreau—"To be a philosopher is not merely to have subtle thoughts nor even to found a school, but so to have wisdom as to live according to its dictates a life of simplicity, independence, magnanimity, and trust"; a politician, too, if you accept Will Durant's definition that "politics is the study of ideal social organization, it is not as one might suppose the art and science of capturing and keeping office." Dr. Mann stamped the new organization with his personality and gave it roominess and high ceilings.

Zook, organizer and administrator, willing to work day and night himself and to put others to work in the greatest variety of fields; a historian who forgets the past to work in the present, with eyes toward the future, endowed with those prime qualities which make a good executive or a good football player, with persistence, courage, and ability to stand unlimited punishment. His work has only begun.

All three, different as they are, have had this in common: they hate humbug, abhor cant, and would rather go naked

with Diogenes than clothe their ignorance in pseudo-scientific jargon or mystify and impress the credulous with high-sounding explanations which do not explain. All three are suspicious of creeds which cannot be stated in words of one syllable, and all measure their values with almost evangelical concern in terms of the individual human spirit.

If time permitted, I should like to add to this gallery of leaders portraits of David A. Robertson, C. S. Marsh, Ben D. Wood, and H. P. Rainey, and other members of the staff; of the officers of the Council and the chairmen of its standing committees, for a summary of the committees and their work would itself be a review of these twenty years. But I must leave that to the record and explore further the ideas of which the Council is the material expression.

To most students of the history of philosophy, the pre-occupation of the Greeks with fundamental concepts such as Being and Becoming, the One and the Many, seems very crude. Yet in spite of the enormous increase in our knowledge, perhaps because of it, the problem of the One and the Many is a greater mystery to us moderns than even to the Greeks. *Are we individuals, or indissoluble parts of a state?* If the latter, how big is the state? Is it coterminous with society? Are we citizens of the world more truly than of America? If an individual cannot elect isolation, can a university, a school system, a nation? Do individuals, universities, school systems, or nations create by free selection their relationships and entangling alliances? What things do individuals do best alone? What things are better done in committees and conferences and councils?

Each of us has a private philosophy of his own touching the One and the Many. To some, relationships are bonds that snare and impede and trip you; to others, they are nerves and the impulses they bring constitute our conscious life. One person can never think in a committee room, another never thinks at all until he meets somebody. To one, the world is made up of separate things whose normal status is apartness and which never create the One unless they are brought to-

gether. To another, as to William James, the universe is by nature a big, buzzing, blooming confusion, which only comes apart when we dismember it by selection. What it needs is not glue or even catalytic agents, but precipitants. The popping atoms seem the most individualistic gesticulations we know, yet if they forsake one sphere of influence it is but to be swept up and into another vortex, differing perhaps only in rhythm. America having set the stage for free individuals finds those individuals voluntarily entering into more combinations than any other country, with a will to regimentation, has ever conceived.

Nor can anyone prescribe a theoretical limit for such combinations. Some think we have too many; some think we have too few. Every day a new one is born; every day an old one dies. Their span of life is determined in part by the permanency of the need they serve, in part by the efficiency of those who direct their activities. If a merciful Providence had not decreed that ideas must win financial support if they are to clothe themselves in operating organizations, we should be as badly beset as an electric light by June bugs. As Joubert has said, "We live in an age in which superfluous ideas abound and essential ideas are lacking." And the same is true of the organizations in which ideas clothe themselves.

John L. Lewis' Committee on Industrial Organization is talking a good deal these days of "solidarity." "If only the industrial workers of the country can be brought to realize that their interests are one and can be advanced by common action, they will become the undisputed masters of the nation." One can go farther. "Workers of the World, Unite" is an older slogan still reverberating around the globe in spite of the terrible disillusionment caused by the World War when loyalty to country was proved more potent than loyalty to class; and the C.I.O. steps over the Canadian boundary as blithely as the leader who is both a British subject and an applicant for American citizenship. How much solidarity is good for the world; how much of it professionally, how much of it politically, is helpful in the field of education?

Today there is less class consciousness among teachers than among automobile workers, and no common goal so definite in education as the goal of higher wages and shorter hours in the economic world. Of course, if we think of education as just another trade, as a means of livelihood, then the sooner we find our place in the American Federation of Labor or the Committee on Industrial Organization, the better.

But since education prefers to think of itself as a profession of service rather than primarily a trade or means of livelihood, however difficult it may be to justify the distinction in these days, it may organize for other than economic or political ends. The question becomes then, since the Council was not organized to raise salaries or to grasp political power, what ends have we in the teaching guild in common that we can achieve better through cooperation than individually, and by what form of organization can the cooperative spirit secure coordination for effective action in the nation's service.

It has been, I think, a surprise to all of us, the ease with which nominal cooperation has been secured on the part both of associations and of institutions. Where we have failed has been in not turning this nominal cooperation into real cooperation. We have failed by forgetting that if the Council is not encyclopedic it is just another association; by dallying in pleasant fields forgetful of the main purpose of the journey; and by identifying ourselves from time to time with some particular group, no matter how rich, how wise, or how virtuous, even though they be professors of education.

Some of my most thoughtful friends in education, believing he travels the fastest who travels alone, look with distrust on any organization of education that extends beyond a few congenial souls. The isolated oracle of Delphi, Luther in the Wartburg, Pasteur alone in his laboratory, exiled by his trade—on these and others like them they pin their hope of human welfare and progress. But there are other good friends who do not share this distrust. They add to their love of freedom the element of faith—the faith that John Dewey pointed out at New Orleans as the foundation of democracy—faith in the

capacities of human nature, faith in human intelligence and in the power of pooled and cooperative experience. It is not the belief of Dewey that these things are complete, but that if given a show they will grow and be able to generate progressively the knowledge and wisdom necessary to guide to effective action. It is with the latter group I cast my lot and so support such experiments in cooperative action as the American Council on Education. Not that I am altogether content with the story of these twenty years, yet I would not be without the Council. It will grow in wisdom and in favor. It will measure up to the important tasks in the days just ahead. In these days of ambitious, predatory pirates looking for rich fields to exploit, I feel that education is safer if an organization of the Council's structure and ideals is at work and on guard in Washington.

Virginia Woolf's new novel, *The Years*, begins: "In 1880 it was an uncertain spring—the weather perpetually changing." It ends a generation later with the word: "The sun had risen and the sky above the houses wore an air of extraordinary beauty, simplicity, and peace." So with the years of the American Council. Conceived in a blizzard in blustery Chicago in war time, it comes of age in sunny Washington, a place of extraordinary beauty, destined, we hope, to retain through the years democratic simplicity and enduring peace.

Leadership or Regimentation in Higher Education

By ALEXANDER G. RUTHVEN

LIKE other social institutions, American colleges and universities have continually before them the task of making adjustments to changing conditions in community aspects of human relationships. From their inception the faculties of colleges have busied themselves with studies of social trends and with educational experiments designed to keep their institutions in position to meet satisfactorily the needs of succeeding generations of students. With all of the efforts, however, unmistakable signs have recently appeared that these institutions, like business, the church, and other units of our social organization, are now facing a definite crisis with reference to their future significance, a crisis which is not apparently being clearly appreciated or intelligently met. Specifically, they must now fit themselves, or be fitted, into a largely new pattern in American life.

THE NATURE OF THE ADJUSTMENT TO BE MADE

From Colonial times until recently our schools grew and multiplied rapidly in a new and uncrowded environment. Their main problems were those immediately associated with increase in size, with rapidly expanding fields of knowledge, and with a gradual change from an agricultural to an industrial society. The task of acquiring teachers, lands, buildings, equipment, and operating funds to meet the demands of increasing numbers of students for the best possible training for life was for colleges and universities often an all-absorbing one. During this period, somewhat fortunately, harassed administrators and overworked and underpaid faculties were not required to give serious consideration to inter-institutional

relationships, since each school could maintain student attendance without engaging in competition or being seriously accused of unnecessary duplication of effort.

Rapid changes in the conditions of life in America in the past few years have altered the relative importance of many old problems of the highest schools in our system and have created important new ones. Well-developed physical plants, enlarged incomes, and an abundance of men and women trained for teaching and research have made the struggle to meet the needs of students somewhat less serious. At the same time, a multiplicity of institutions, greater ease of travel, and a growing burden of taxation have brought the schools relatively close together, decreased their isolation, originated an uneconomical duplication of functions, and produced a sharp competition for students. In short, there has been a rather rapid movement from an order characterized by the necessity for more institutions and better educational facilities into a new one in which the important task is to build an integrated system of higher education by coordinated programs of instruction, with elimination of duplication and regional allocation of functions.

The adjustment to the conditions of a new struggle for existence which must now perforce be made by the schools requires of educators a decision which cannot be avoided. They may attempt to provide leadership through study of the problems of change and by the exercise of judgment, tact, and wisdom in the solution of these problems, or they may adopt an attitude of indifference, hopelessness, or selfishness and permit their institutions to fall into the hands of politicians and bureaucrats to be regimented by formulas and the demands of special interests. A survey of present trends of thought and action seems to discover teachers and administrators as academically inclined to one course while adopting in practice the other. School men still appear confident of their ability to guide the destinies of their institutions and continue to preach the virtues of institutional independence and academic freedom. At the same time, they are both wittingly and un-

wittingly very rapidly trading away their leadership, and by failure to deal effectively with their problems they are building up a strong case for a system of forced cooperation and remote control.

THE STATE-SUPPORTED INSTITUTIONS

The present position of most tax-supported colleges and universities is a striking illustration of the recent tendency of faculties and administrators to barter freedom for financial considerations. The growth of these schools has long been viewed with pride by the majority of Americans, and almost without exception the faith of the citizens who created and continue to support them has been justified by the quality of instruction, by the number and grade of researches, by service rendered to the people, and by a democratic spirit. For many years it has been the aim of those desirous of improving the educational opportunities of our citizens to protect these schools from their most imminent danger—partisan political influences. But while it has been the dream of educators to see state-supported colleges and universities safe from party and faction, and faculties and administrators of state schools continue to give lip service to this ideal, according to a recent report¹ in only six of these schools do the governing boards now occupy a position of independence in regard to the powers of state executive officials and agencies.

Furthermore, most of the state colleges now receive their support by direct legislative appropriation. With increasing frequency, also, they are accepting support by appropriation bills carrying riders which dictate details of operation. In a number of states the governor appoints the trustees, and in some he is *ex officio* a member of the governing body. I quote from the report just cited:

Of striking interest is the large number of states in which state executive officials and agencies exercise powers over the budgetary and

¹ "Authority of State Executive Agencies over Higher Education," *U. S. Office of Education Bulletin* 1936, No. 15, p. 6.

fiscal affairs of the institution which are closely related to the conduct of the educational and academic programs. In a considerable proportion of the states, the powers of these officials and agencies include staff and faculty personnel matters, travel of staff members, publications, printing and purchasing, all of which involve the educational and academic program to a considerable extent.²

The evil results of these and other administrative procedures which make the institutions subservient to political influences are all too apparent and need not be illustrated by examples. Suffice to say more than ever before faculty members are compelled to live in apprehension of dismissal, administrators are handicapped in directing the growth of their schools, and selfish interests and non-educational agencies are modifying the curricula and directing staff appointments and activities. To make matters worse, in order to escape in some measure from state control and to secure additional cash, school administrators, educational politicians, and professors themselves are now apparently ready further to strangle state-supported higher education by seeking, and, indeed, by engaging in unseemly struggles for, federal subsidies.

The practice of creating federal subsidies for state schools is increasing. Bills providing for them are being presented to Congress in ever greater numbers, and many of these bills are now being supported by powerful lobbies of educators, some of them allied with governmental bureaus. Not only are the administrators of state institutions enticed into supporting these measures by the lure of easy money, but state legislatures are led with the same bait to match funds without thought of the relative importance of the projects or the need of the funds for other purposes. It scarcely seems possible that educators can be so heedless or myopic as to be unable to discern the evil consequences of these subsidies. Federal grants, unless carefully made, mean competition between institutions, continuing struggles for ever greater support of the same kind, the gradual assumption of the power to dictate

² *Ibid.*, p. 7.

operations by small bureaucrats, and ultimately political domination.

THE ENDOWED SCHOOLS

Privately endowed schools have generally been thought to be in less danger than the state colleges and universities of coming under the control of politicians and others who would make use of them illegitimately. This conclusion has been but partially correct for, while they have been free in large measure from the control of political forces, they have not entirely escaped the influence of others. Moreover, regardless of the past, these schools must now realize that the situation faced by state schools has serious implications for them. Because of their numbers, large appropriations, and increased gifts, the state-supported institutions have become serious competitors of the endowed colleges. Thus, the latter not only should join with the state schools in a coordinated system of higher education in the interests of efficiency, but they must do so or be relegated to an ever smaller corner of the educational field, for in one way or another such a system will develop. Moreover, if the practice of creating federal subsidies is continued, the endowed schools will inevitably either be induced or forced to seek them in order to meet the growing competition. Only through cooperation with state schools can the endowed institutions hope to prosper as important agencies in the organization of society, and only as all schools remain free can any of them hope for long to escape the shackles of political control.

THE ALTERNATIVES

We may conclude then that the need for a continuous, progressive, and coordinated program of higher education presents to school men but two alternatives, either to accept regimentation or to provide constructive leadership. We may also deduce from experience that, while centralized control may force an integrated system of higher education, it may also be counted upon to produce all of the evils of

bureaucratic collectivism, such as the interpretation of legislation, and, inevitably, the remote control of appointments, curricula, salaries, and programs, by clerks and educational politicians. On the other hand, it should be obvious that cooperation can also be secured by voluntary and studious effort, and that this method, while often slow in yielding results, will at least be unattended by the disadvantages of state or federal dictatorship. Finally, and again evidently, to insure for themselves the independence and privilege of directing the course of education in America which should rightfully be theirs it is only necessary for our colleges and universities to dedicate themselves anew to the democratic ideal and then actively to practice their own teachings by adjusting themselves, through investigation and experimentation, to the immediate needs and demands of the modern world. As we are frequently told, a function of the democratic order is to secure group action through voluntary cooperation of individual and group interests. It is not primarily coercive in character. Except in emergencies, autocratic administration is permitted only in areas where the majority of people believe uniformity is essential. If it is assumed that the democratic state is desired by the citizens of this country, then our educators should attempt through their own organizations not to promote a forced didactic collectivism, which is also a dictatorial form of organization, but to understand the problems before them, to harmonize their differences, and to learn progressively to work together.

If the schools are to maintain their dignity, preserve their independence, and justify the faith which has been placed in them, there can be no delay in creating a genuine, intelligent, and widespread cooperation. Leadership must appear at once to check the trend toward regimentation, and this leadership must be backed by a loyalty which is guided by an appreciation of the values to be preserved and the dangers to be avoided.

It is hopeless to expect any one school at this time to assume leadership by virtue of its own strength and prestige. Only

through educational organizations can the colleges and universities help themselves. Furthermore, a nation-wide program will need, or at least could use to advantage, the support of the great foundations. Up to the present time these trusts, either through failure of their boards of trustees to understand the problem, or because of particular interests of the members of the board in control, have hindered rather than promoted cooperation between institutions. The foundations can be of little service in the task of creating an integrated system of higher education by emphasizing grants-in-aid, but they could give very effective assistance in correlating the activities of colleges and universities by cooperating with each other and with the educational councils and institutions in an attempt to organize a national program of teaching and research, involving a regional distribution of activities, by increasing the number of scholarships and fellowships, and by making project grants in the form of period allotments or endowments.

A SUGGESTED PROGRAM

It is highly presumptuous of anyone to attempt to lay down a social program in these unsettled times. Since, however, educators profess to be champions of academic freedom and the democratic order, they are in honor bound to consider means of giving practical expression to their ideals. With no thought, then, that it will be all sufficient for the purpose but only in the hope that it will be helpful, I venture to propose a nine-point program for higher education in America designed to produce cooperation, to eliminate wasteful duplication, and to secure our colleges and universities in their natural position of leadership in the advanced training of youth.

1. Educators should immediately rededicate their schools to the democratic idea and acquaint faculties with the dangers of, and trends toward, state and federal control.

2. The educational organizations should study themselves with the objective of coordinating their activities, and of in-

creasing their effectiveness in the particular fields in which they are primarily designed to serve.

3. The foundations should be asked largely to cease providing direct grants-in-aid, and in their place to give more support to scholarships and fellowships and to projects which form parts of research and teaching programs approved by the educational counsels.

4. A Congressional investigation of educational lobbies should be demanded at once with a view to effecting their elimination.

5. The President's Advisory Committee on Education should be asked to investigate federal subsidies in the hope that the practice of creating them may be discontinued or methods adopted which will limit them to experimental periods and otherwise keep them from centralizing control over the schools.

6. The institutions of higher education should accept the American Council on Education, or create some other council, as the general coordinating body for all of their activities.

7. The American Council on Education or a similar body should be requested to give immediate attention to the preparation of a broad national program which will eliminate undesirable competition and unwise duplication of effort among colleges and universities. (I do not mean by that simply membership in the Council. I believe the schools should generally agree that what we need at the present time is active coordination and active cooperation, and that they should be willing to put the whole matter of developing policies and programs into the hands of this Council or some other.)

8. All organized forces in education should have as common aims the resistance of every attempt to place the schools under political or factional control and the development of leadership which will lead to a free, well-coordinated system of higher education.

9. If it becomes imperative to establish a regulatory tribunal to increase the effectiveness of voluntary organizations

in harmonizing judgments and averting conflicts, the necessary centralization of control should be provided, not in an independent governmental bureau but in an interstate educational commission (including both private and state-supported schools) set up with express provisions for common hearings, joint conferences, the utilization of state regulatory machinery, and other devices to insure cooperation between institutional, state, and federal authorities.

The essence of these proposals is that the real threat to academic freedom at this time is to be found, in the first instance, within rather than without our institutions, in the inability of educators to appreciate their responsibilities for leadership, in institutional isolation, in the spreading blight of political control, and in the strings attached to the easy money of federal subsidies.

Limiting Student Enrollments

By WALTER M. KOTSCHNIG

IN 1933 the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, with the generous support of Carnegie Corporation of New York, decided to sponsor an international inquiry, initiated by the International Student Service in Geneva, into the problem of the alleged overcrowding of institutions of higher learning and its educational and social implications, the results of which will shortly be available.³ Most of the data given in the following article are based on the report about to be published.

THE CRISIS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

The first fact to be retained is that student enrollments throughout the world have doubled and trebled since before the war; in some countries they have even reached four or five times the extent they had in 1913. Japan heads the list with an increase of 636 per cent between 1913 and 1934, closely followed by Roumania with an increase of 570 per cent. The increase in British India has been 290 per cent. Similar though less substantial gains have been made in France (112 per cent), Holland (145 per cent), Great Britain (82 per cent), and in the United States (± 200 per cent). Student enrollments in German institutions of higher learning increased from 76,800 in 1913 to 132,000 in 1930. Since that year they have fallen again to 77,000, largely owing to National-Socialist propaganda and the drastic measures taken by the Hitler government to block the access to colleges and universities.

³ Walter M. Kotschnig, *The Unemployment in the Learned Professions, An International Study of Occupational and Educational Planning*, to be published by the Oxford University Press in June 1937.

While the growth of higher education is to be welcomed from many points of view, it has not been without serious consequences both for the institutions of higher learning, which are in danger of sacrificing quality to quantity, and for the market of intellectual labor which in more than one country has been dislocated by the oversupply of graduates in search of work in keeping with their training. On the first count it is obviously difficult, particularly where a large range of countries are considered, to produce any objective criteria by which a possible lowering of the academic standards might be measured. The complaint is general, however, that the colleges and universities today have to cope with a larger number of poorly qualified and poorly prepared students, who are a burden both to their fellow students and to their teachers. It is pointed out that there are all too many who seek a higher education only in order to improve their social standing or to enhance their chances for a larger income. They are "also-students" who lack any vestige of intellectual curiosity, for whom higher studies are a continuous grind, and who are often quite incapable of intellectual effort.

An indirect proof of the validity of these complaints can be found in the general tendency to replace the more difficult academic subjects by easier, more "useful" courses which are within the grasp of the "also-students." Thus, on the college level, enrollments in such courses as philosophy, mathematics, and ancient and even modern languages are nearly everywhere on the decline. In other words, those courses which are eminently fitted to give the students the essential elements of human knowledge and an understanding of first principles are forsaken. Their place is taken by purely utilitarian and vocational subjects, from bookkeeping to hotel management. At the university level both research and truly professional training, which can never be purely utilitarian, are hampered by the presence of multitudes whose general education is sketchy and who are unable to relate their specific fields to first principles.

In evaluating the position and achievements of the institu-

tions of higher learning it is also important to note that the teaching load has increased almost everywhere. It is not so much an increase in the number of courses to be given by the individual teacher but in the number of students to be guided by him in their studies. Counting full professors, associate professors, lecturers, and tutors, there were 20 students to each faculty member in Holland in 1932 as compared with 13 in 1913; in Norway, 22 instead of 16; in Italy, 17 instead of 12; in Spain, 21 instead of 17; in the United States, 13 instead of 11. For a majority of countries, no pre-war figures are available. However, there have been changes even during the short period between 1925 and 1927. There were 17 students to each faculty member in Austria in 1932 as against 16 in 1925; in Poland, 19 as against 16; in Yugoslavia, 26 as against 20. The changes are even more marked if teachers of professorial rank only are considered. Comparing the change in ratios between 1925 and 1932, we find that the student-professor proportion has increased in Austria from 50 to 64; in Poland, from 42 to 52; in Yugoslavia, from 49 to 55; and in Great Britain, from 50 to 64. Since the professors, as we know, can delegate only certain parts of their work to their younger colleagues and normally have to retain just that task of examination which is one of their heaviest burdens, it is unquestionable that there is full justification for their frequent complaint that research for them is becoming ever more difficult. For the students the personal contact with the authorities on their subjects has in some institutions of higher learning become almost impossible, particularly in the monster institutions of ten or fifteen thousand students. The relation of master and disciple becomes a relation of teacher and pupil. Too large student enrollments lead almost necessarily to regimentation, to classroom drill, to cramming, and to a system of points and credits, utterly foreign to higher education. In the words of H. T. Tizard, rector of the Imperial College of Science in London:

I have little hesitation in saying that universities are too full. As a result the tendency is towards over-organization, too little latitude, and

too much spoon-feeding. The more distinguished the teacher, the more he is tempted away from teaching and research: his presence is required on committees.

THE DANGERS OF A WHITE-COLLAR PROLETARIAT

The effects of the uncontrolled rush for higher education upon the market for intellectual labor have been even more disquieting. Unemployment, underemployment, that is, employment in no way related to previous training, and rapidly decreasing incomes have been the lot of tens of thousands of college and university graduates in recent years. Some of the difficulties encountered, particularly by recent graduates, were obviously due to the depression. Yet the depression accounts only partly for the plight of the professions—not only were many professions overcrowded before the depression set in, but they have only very partially shared in the recovery. This is not surprising when one recalls that the number of graduates of the various professional courses and schools in recent decades has been twice and three times as large as during the preceding decades. It is quite obvious that this increase did not correspond to a similar increase in the normal demand for professional services.

The Limburg Commission in Holland, a semi-official body set up in 1935 to inquire into the growing unemployment among Dutch university graduates, came after a minute investigation of professional prospects to the conclusion that Holland needed ± 770 new graduates every year to meet the demand for professional workers due to death and expanding opportunities, while actually ± 1500 graduates are leaving the universities every year. In 1928, that is, before the depression, a census of unemployed workers with a university training in Hungary revealed that out of a total of 53,000 academically trained people more than 10,000 were without work. Germany in 1933 had between 50,000 and 60,000 unemployed graduates of universities and technical colleges, mostly below thirty, as against a total number of approximately 300,000 gainfully employed persons with a university training. In-

comes of professional workers in these and other countries have declined steeply. Salaries of \$20 or less per month are by no means the exception. In 1934 the Hungarian government created 1,200 emergency jobs for unemployed intellectuals at a salary of approximately \$12 per week. Within a few weeks 3,200 applications had been received. The average income of lawyers in Germany decreased by more than 60 per cent between 1925 and 1933.

The full import of these facts only becomes clear when it is realized that the misery of recent graduates is one of the major causes for the social unrest in Europe and in other parts of the world such as British India. As regards Europe, it has to be remembered that the Nazi revolution and fascist movements in other countries have found their main support among the middle and lower middle classes, the very classes which have had the lion's share in the growth of student enrollments since the beginning of this century, and particularly since the war. For them a higher education for their sons and daughters appeared to be the final step towards social and economic emancipation, a goal for which they were ready to sacrifice everything. Far from attaining this goal, they saw their children sink into the white collar proletariat. They felt frustrated, they saw all their hopes for a rise in the social scale dashed, they discovered that all their saving and slaving had been of no avail.

From this realization to outright revolutionary activities it was but a step. We are obviously confronted here with only one of the causes leading to the rise of Hitler and other revolutionary leaders, yet it is significant that unemployed university graduates were, as leaders of the S. S. and S. A., in the vanguard of the Hitler revolution. Similarly the fascist Iron Guard in Roumania, which is responsible for the assassination of one Roumanian Prime Minister, draws its most ardent supporters from amongst unemployed, discontented graduates. The same is true of extremist movements in Holland, Belgium, France, Austria, Poland, and other countries. Frustrated and miserable, these young people and the social

groups from which they come are abandoning all rational planning, which characterizes the educated person, and seek their salvation in an appeal to force. Not only are professional services diminishing in price, but the intellect itself, and education conceived as intellectual training are losing the popular esteem, are being devaluated. Intellect yields to emotional impulses stimulated by agitators and demagogues, the school as an educational agency yields to storm troops and all kinds of regimented organizations for political combat.

There is but one conclusion to be drawn from all these phenomena: in so far as the planless expansion of higher education is leading to a lowering of standards in colleges and universities, to more unemployment of the highly educated, and for that reason not only to social unrest but to a surrender of intellectual values and a denial of the intellect, ways and means have to be found to save education from itself, to give purpose and direction to the evolution of higher learning.

THE "NUMERUS CLAUSUS"

The measures most commonly proposed to bring the situation under control are stricter examinations, the raising of fees, and the outright limitation of enrollments by fixing quotas for the number of new students to be admitted (*numerus clausus*).² Of all these restrictive methods only the *numerus clausus* has been immediately effective, and for that reason deserves a more detailed analysis. Stricter examinations have on the whole only led to increased cramming and have not resulted in any substantial decrease in student enroll-

² The acute unemployment among university graduates has also given rise to numerous measures and proposals for influencing and organizing the market of intellectual labor (creation of emergency work, laws restricting the work of foreigners and of women, lowering of the retiring age, prohibition of multiple employment, employment offices for intellectual workers, etc.). A discussion of these measures is obviously outside the scope of this paper. Besides, since the supply of new graduates for the professions exceeds substantially the potential demand for their services, most of these measures have proved mere palliatives. Some of them, such as the prohibition of the work of women or foreigners, are most problematical at best.

ments, while they have greatly added to the burden of the teacher and the student. Besides, few would boast that current examination methods are fully satisfactory.⁸ The raising of fees which re-establishes wealth as the major criterion for admission has generally been opposed as antisocial and contrary to the best interests of higher learning. Most of the efforts to raise fees to a prohibitive level have for this reason not led to any concrete results.

The *numerus clausus* appears under two different forms. It is designed to restrict admission either to a limited number of strictly professional courses or to all institutions of higher learning. Many countries, including the United States, have applied the first form of restriction, which presents interesting problems in educational and occupational planning. This partial *numerus clausus* has been practiced above all in medical schools (United States, Holland, Norway, Finland, Poland, etc.) and in engineering colleges. Either by way of more or less explicit agreement between certain types of professional schools or by government regulation, definite numerical restrictions are placed on new admissions every year and quotas are allotted to each individual institution. These limitations serve the double purpose of relieving the congestion in professional and technical schools—admissions are limited in keeping with the number of available places in laboratories and work-shops—and of establishing a balance between the supply of new graduates and the probable demand for them.

There is much to be said for this procedure. It enables the schools to do their work properly, that is, without suffering from lowered standards which result from overcrowding. If the yearly admissions are planned in the light of future prospects in the professions for which the schools prepare,

⁸ The doubtful value of many of the existing examination methods has been clearly brought out by the International Examinations Inquiry sponsored by the International Institute of Teachers College. The reports of the two conferences held at Eastbourne and Folkstone in the course of the Inquiry and the various national reports, particularly I. L. Kandel's *Examinations and Their Substitutes in the United States* (New York, 1936), deserve the closest attention.

such a limited *numerus clausus* will furthermore help to prevent students from embarking upon a process of professional preparation which in the end may only lead to disappointment. This is particularly important where the period of preparation is costly and long (in the case of medicine, six to nine years) and where the training received is of a highly specialized character.

At the same time it is essential that any policy of restrictions should be surrounded by all conceivable safeguards, of which three are of paramount importance. First, the determining of the number of admissions should not be left to professional organizations alone, as they may easily be tempted to admit too few new students in order to keep the supply for the professions artificially small with a view to maintaining monopoly prices. To avoid this danger, and in order not to expose the professional organizations to unjustified criticism, it appears advisable, therefore, that the collation of facts and the forecast of future needs should be left to impartial agencies or commissions in which not only the schools themselves and the professions concerned should be represented but also the public through civil servants, social workers, economists, and other experts. The remarkable forecasts of professional prospects produced by the Limburg Commission in Holland, the former *Volkswirtschaftliche Zentralstelle* in Germany (abolished under the Hitler regime), the Committee of Inquiry in Sweden, headed by Professor Sven Wicksell and Tor Jerne-man, and similar agencies elsewhere should convince even the skeptic that impartial and well-documented predictions are within the reach of possibility. Secondly, it is important that those admitted under the pre-established quotas should be selected exclusively on the basis of scholarship and ability. Race, membership in a party, or the social standing of the applicants are not the criteria by which the best students are likely to be discovered.

Finally, it must be clearly understood that those applicants who though intellectually able have to be refused admission, will be given an opportunity of entering other institutions of

higher learning. Anything else would imply a radical break with some of the finest traditions of the universities, which have reached greatness as institutions for the preservation, the imparting, and the advancement of knowledge, irrespective of utilitarian ends. It has been their chief function to be centers of cultural life open to all those whose ability and training enable them to share in the *summum bonum* of man's intellectual achievement. In other words, higher education is a value in itself, which must remain accessible to all those who are able to benefit by it.

All the Western democracies have tenaciously held to this generous idea of higher learning, and have been adamant in their opposition to any arbitrary and general restrictions of college and university enrollments. They refused to have anything to do with any kind of "intellectual Malthusianism," which they considered hostile to the very idea of social and cultural progress. To quote only one eminent European scholar, Jules Destrée, formerly Belgian member of the Committee of Intellectual Cooperation: "C'est là, qu'on me passe le mot, un remède de cheval. La Société risque peut-être d'y perdre plus qu'elle n'y gagnera, puisque ces restrictions à l'entrée ne peuvent qu'appauvrir la culture humaine d'une façon redoutable."⁴ Of the larger countries, only Germany under Hitler has seen fit to introduce a general *numerus clausus*. By law of April 25, 1935, followed by supplementary regulations issued in December of the same year, it was ordered that only 15,000 of the 1934 graduates from secondary schools should be allowed to enter German institutions of higher learning. Actually, 15,929 students were given the *Hochschulreife*, that is, a certificate of eligibility enabling them to enter a German university. This represented 40.37 per cent of all those who in 1934 left the secondary schools in Germany, after having successfully passed their final examinations. The reduction is drastic, considering that between

⁴ Jules Destrée, "Les lumières qui s'éteignent," in *Le Soir* (Bruxelles, April 7, 1934).

1930 and 1932 nearly 30,000 students had each year entered the universities.

More revealing even than the actual limitation were the criteria for selecting those to be admitted to higher studies. Apart from intellectual aptitude, character and "national reliability" (*nationale Zuverlässigkeit*), sincerity of outlook, bodily prowess, and a capacity for comradeship and devotion, in accordance with the National-Socialist view of the state, were to be the determining factors for selection. No new Jewish students were admitted, while the number of first-year women students was reduced to 10 per cent of the total. This latter restriction shows the iron logic of Nazi Germany which considers that the new German civilization is to be a man-made civilization, exalting the masculine virtues of heroism, physical prowess, and military discipline. Graduates of secondary schools, among them some of the most brilliant students, who were not given the certificate of eligibility for higher studies were referred to the National Institute for Employment and Unemployment Insurance for purposes of reorientation and placing in non-academic careers.

As a result of this draconic legislation the total freshmen enrollments for the year 1934-35 did not even reach the number of secondary school graduates who at Easter, 1934, were given the *Hochschulreife*. Only 13,889 first year students were actually enrolled. This is not surprising. The very criteria which govern the dispensing of the *Hochschulreife* singled out as future students young people whose whole inclination was towards life in the army or the party organization rather than towards strenuous intellectual exercise. It is probable, therefore, that with the growing rearmament many of them were only too relieved to find occupations outside the precincts of the universities. The *numerus clausus* legislation was therefore even more effective than was anticipated by its authors. In spite of a relaxation of the original rules, the total enrollments in German institutions of higher learning decreased from $\pm 130,000$ students during the first years of the third decade to slightly over 77,000 students in 1935.

The true meaning and an explanation of the German legislation can only be found in a phenomenon which has been touched upon before. The very idea of restricting the access to every form of higher learning and the criteria for selection which were adopted could only be accepted in a country which had lost its faith in intellectual training of the highest type. Hitler Germany has replaced the ideal of the educated man by the ideal of the soldier. Social and economic emancipation is to be achieved not through higher education but through the party and the army. Not brains but brawn has become the *ultima ratio*.

For this reason modern Germany does not stand as an example but as a warning. And the opposition of the Western democracies to the introduction of any general *numerus clausus* is well founded. For to countenance such a proposal implies the surrender not only of the best tradition of the universities but of the very basis on which Western civilization rests.

TOWARDS A SOLUTION

Even though any general, purely numerical limitations of student enrollments have to be rejected there is no need to adopt a defeatist attitude in the face of the very real crisis brought upon the colleges and universities by the rush for higher education, nor is the unemployment in the learned professions unavoidable. As a matter of fact, a judicious policy of restricting the access to highly specialized professional courses only will go a long way to relieve the unemployment in the professions. Besides, there can be little doubt that the threat to scholastic standards would largely disappear if it should prove possible to keep the large number of "also-students" away from the institutions of higher learning. It is obvious by now that the colleges and universities themselves can do little to achieve this end. Even supposing that they are successful in raising their entrance requirements, they will be held responsible, and justly so, for a great deal of individual hardship and serious loss of time, energy, and money on the

part of all whose secondary school training was largely intended as a preparation for higher studies. Any selection will have to be made at an earlier date and by means of a more purposeful organization of the secondary schools and their curricula.

Secondary schools in more than one country have been drifting without a compass ever since they began to provide an education not only for the select few but for a steadily increasing portion of the young people of high school age. In many European countries old-type secondary schools preparing for the universities and nothing else have been multiplied, while what was needed was the development of higher vocational schools. In the United States the cosmopolitan high schools, in spite of the notable progress which has been made in recent years in *clarifying educational objectives*, is still suffering from a confusion between the idea of equality and that of identity of opportunity in education. Thus students with a strong intellectual bent, the hand-minded, and those who without being morons are not particularly able in any direction continue to be put through more or less the same mill. Most of them receive a diluted type of college preparatory education which retards those who are really fit for higher studies, and prompts many of those who are not to complete their education in an institution of higher learning. This situation is likely to persist as long as the American system of secondary education does not offer enough different types of schools or courses, each to be characterized by clearly defined educational objectives. Similarly, much of the remarkable work accomplished in perfecting tests of intelligence and ability must remain futile as long as there is no clear idea of the purposes for which children are to be tested and as long as it remains impossible to distribute them over those schools and courses by which in the light of their ability they are most likely to benefit.

Any detailed discussion of these issues is obviously beyond the scope of this paper. Nor are the researches in this field sufficiently advanced to allow of definite conclusions. It is

significant, however, that the attention of those who seek a solution of the problem of the overcrowding of the institutions of higher learning and of the unemployment in the white collar occupations is gradually shifting from the colleges and universities to the secondary schools. Except as regards the limitation of enrollments in strictly professional courses any general restrictions enforced by colleges and universities are either futile or dangerous or both. Hope of progress lies in a reconsideration of the purpose, the organization, and the curricula of the secondary school.

Just one word in conclusion: In spite of my repeated references to the United States, it is quite obvious that the overcrowding of the universities and colleges in this country, while real in some instances, is far from having reached the disquieting proportions which it has reached in Europe. At present there is little unemployment among college and university graduates which cannot be explained by the after-effects of the depression. Yet it is to be expected that the pressure in numbers on the colleges and universities will increase, that enrollments will continue to go up. So far, even in this country, only the middle and lower middle classes find their way into higher education. The day is coming when common labor will demand its share in higher education, and both from the point of view of higher education itself and from the point of view of social justice, this is only to be defended.

If this is so, then every social group within a country should be able to send its best sons and daughters to the institutions of higher learning. In other words, the supply of college and university graduates is also likely to increase, and the day may come, perhaps it isn't so very far off, when in this country, too, the absorptive capacity of the country will not be enough to give work to all those who leave the institutions of higher learning, and in that moment then some of the forces which are threatening the continuance of western civilization in Europe may emerge also in this country. That is why it is important to consider these questions before it is too late.

It is true we are faced by a dilemma of the first magnitude: on the one hand we have the growing tide of student enrollments which corresponds both to the desire of the masses to free themselves economically and socially and the need for an educated citizenry; on the other hand, we have the danger of lowered standards in teaching and achievement in institutions of higher learning and the specter of growing unemployment among graduates with all its sinister implications. The dilemma as indicated can be solved, but it will demand the best efforts of educators and social scientists. Small countries such as Holland and Sweden have appointed more or less official government or semiofficial bodies composed of scientists to tackle the problem. I am convinced that neither the United States nor any of the other large Western democracies can neglect the problem.

Social Responsibility of School and Court

By MIRIAM VAN WATERS

MY THEME is directed toward a joint responsibility for training youth in extra-curricular activities, stressing the social, the citizenship responsibility of the school. The task of the educator in this field is to set the goals which our civilization considers desirable, and the task of the penologist is to follow along after and to care for those who could not make the grade, those who are misfits or who have been injured or neglected in the process of going through the school system; for crime, that short ugly word, is based on innumerable acts of neglect and omission. It is a collective abstract word for our neglects and omissions having their origin usually in childhood and youth.

I would like to have you put your attention briefly on the whole problem of social invention to overcome social difficulty. I would like you to consider the short life span of an idea, the juvenile court idea, for example. American social reformers in the 1890's concerned themselves with the task of saving children from criminal law machinery. They established the first juvenile court in Cook County, Illinois, in 1898. Today American social reformers are trying to save children from the children's courts that we have established. A whole new series of slogans and panaceas has arisen—child councils, prevention of delinquency, and so on. Evidently the reliance is not to be had on machinery.

An idea may result in social invention. If it achieves actual change in the way we treat human beings it is because we have added vital conduct to our sensibilities. Vital conduct serves the idea by building a structure, not a machine. It is constantly mindful of its function. It does not rely on routine but it becomes flexible, vitalizing its actions both by experience and by reference to the good idea. The juvenile court movement has become big: it has swelled, but not grown.

I need not dwell on the evidence of failure and breakdown in our scheme, our national scheme for handling juvenile delinquency. First let me state that the actual delinquency rate as measured by those who enter juvenile courts, the actual rate as measured by statistics carefully kept and standardized by the federal Children's Bureau, is on a downward trend in at least Pennsylvania, New York, and Massachusetts where these records have been kept carefully for twenty years; there is a 10 per cent decrease. This may be due to a variety of social forces at work, but the evidence of failure is not so much the delinquency rate as it is the increasing youthfulness of our intake in state prisons, the increasing waste of life through the capital punishment of youthful offenders, and the savage length of sentence that we impose upon youth; for no nation in the world in normal times treats its offending youth as harshly as we do, and this in spite of thirty-five years of the juvenile court.

Where does the responsibility lie for taking care of delinquent youth, that is, where does the organized social responsibility lie, granted that the family has broken down in a given case? I think that in most of our meetings we are prone to stress the shortcomings of the agency we are not connected with. The schools will talk about the police and the home and the neighborhood, sometimes the church. At any meeting where social workers and mental hygienists and juvenile court judges get together, they blame the school. The question of who is guilty and who is innocent is an idle one. I think the leading cause of our moral and intellectual retardation is this hunt for the shortcomings of others and our failure to realize that the responsibility is with ourselves in so far as each and every one of us touches youth.

Let us examine the work that the juvenile court planned for itself to do in the 1890's. It had a concept of child protection. It expressed this concept in the theory of chancery law, *parens patriæ*—the parental power of the state to do for the helpless that which they could not do for themselves. You are familiar with the old Anglo-Saxon court of equity in which the chan-

cellor was the ultimate guardian of those who by reason of unsound mind or helplessness of any kind were cared for by the state; this solicitude was applied chiefly to those who had property rights. The lord chancellor was the guardian of the rich young boys and girls whose parents and uncles had been killed in the wars.

The American juvenile court set as its goal the protection of the whole period of infancy, namely, up to eighteen or twenty-one. Particularly was the child to be protected from the harshness and corruption of criminal law procedure. Moral responsibility, certainly, was recognized but every force to be used was a force for constructive purposes and not mere revenge getting. In other words, responsibility fell upon the adults to take care of the children and to protect them from strains which their low degree of maturation biologically, psychologically, and spiritually had not fitted them to carry.

The founders had the idea and they have it still, so much so that this bill, tested out in supreme courts all over the United States, stood every legal test. It was declared constitutional, and reform schools were turned into training schools, probation officers were added, etc., and yet the idea did not prevent juvenile offenses from being treated as crimes. The public thinks perhaps it was the fault of the idea. Those who are close to it know that the idea became mechanized. People entered this service who were interested primarily in it as a livelihood, or as a means of getting on, and the great founders, the social inventors turned their minds to something else.

There is a verse in the fortieth chapter of Isaiah which, after bidding us "Lift up your eyes on high and behold who hath created these things, that bringeth out their host by number," states that they who serve "shall mount up with wings as eagles; they shall run, and not be weary; and they shall walk, and not faint."

To mount up like an eagle may be likened to the original concept—that was easy; for maturity to run along on a short course of founding juvenile courts with all of their idealism

was not so hard; but for the young men who followed after to walk day by day in a routine task without fainting was vastly more difficult.

Now what was the school doing when the juvenile court was thinking out its plan of saving American childhood? It was confronted with surplus registration, it had compulsory education laws to maintain, it had to keep public order. It found truancy, sex, theft, disobedience, retardation in its schoolrooms. How did the schools in general deal with these behavior problems of youth? In general, the schools dealt with these behavior problems on a criminalistic basis. They turned to the police for models and method. They developed "hookey" cops; they developed repressive classes and schools for truants. In other words, there was a lag on the part of the school system in accepting social invention; the juvenile court had early linked itself with scientific examinations, medical inspections, mental hygiene, and progressive education. By and large the school did not follow these concepts for troublesome cases within the school.

The family had broken down, there was divorce and poverty and unemployment, and then youth was thrown out to make its own decisions. In no other country, I repeat, is youth given so much freedom to make adult decisions, and in no country is a mistake of youth punished with such harshness.

What can the school do as a social agency, granted the families of the individuals I am talking about have broken down? The school can go back to its early compulsory registration law and it can establish a registration for all youth. It does now in a sense, but it can make that vastly more effective socially. We have no national problem of delinquency; we have only neighborhood problems of delinquency. Each and every one of these million hitch-hikers, unemployed young people wandering about the country, found on the San Bernardino Pass, found in Florida, found in every state and often in a stolen car they have taken from one state line to another, belongs *somewhere*, in a neighborhood where the schoolmaster and the postmaster and the priest and the village policeman

know him. That is not quite so true of the cities, but the cities, too, upon analysis of their juvenile court population will find they have certain neighborhood knowledge of the youth before the juvenile court.

If the schools would register their people under eighteen, let us say, know at all times where they are, and take the leadership of calling upon departments of public welfare or whatever relief agency, federal or local, there is in the community to get the young people back into the neighborhood, then if the schools could assume leadership for guiding their school day at least in some form of student participation, a great deal would be accomplished. If the schools could introduce the ideas of the juvenile court in dealing with the schools' delinquency, it would help a great deal.

Who is it that initiates court proceedings in crime and delinquency? It is always an individual. It may be the policeman; it may be the parent; it may be the social worker; or it may be the teacher who wants to have this child brought before the court. What can the court do? There are only two things the court can do since we have eliminated the concept of revenge in our legal system theoretically. First, the court can protect the rights of childhood, working with parents, improving conditions, removing sources of moral contamination. Second, it can work out corrective processes. These corrective processes are very largely educational, of the kind that you who are dealing with secondary education in communities which have to provide for vast numbers of boys and girls know best.

I would like to tell you what living in a prison has taught me. I have worked in juvenile courts, I have worked in communities, but now for five years I have shared life with about 400 women between seventeen and seventy, and fifty some infants born to the mothers who have been sent there. One outstanding thing I have learned is the skill of the delinquent. If you examine some of the craft work, handwork, the home economics turnout, the singing of Bach, the writing of some

poetry, the wood carving, the original designing, you will be astonished, I think, at the skill and the accuracy set forth.

Some of you, just as a footnote, might be interested in an article in the April *Atlantic Monthly* called "Pegasus in Prison," written by Hilda Hinckley who is a colleague of mine in Framingham; the article is largely based on the poetry written by these young women convicts during the course of their prison sentence.

Delinquents show great capacity for adjustment under certain conditions. Not long ago in Joliet Penitentiary I was permitted by the warden to interview a youth of twenty-two whom I have known since he was seventeen, Russell McWilliams, imprisoned for life for murder. This youth threw himself on the mercy of the court and plead guilty. He had no prior criminal record. He committed his crime under the influence of drink. He left school at the age of thirteen and a half and went to work in a dog biscuit factory and turned over all his wages to his tubercular mother who has died since he was in prison.

He met a boy who had a girl and a broken-down Ford. They went out riding. They began to hold up gasoline stations to get money to give girls chicken sandwiches and alcohol. After a brief period, about a month (all the time he was turning back his wages to his mother) he committed his crime and shot a motorman. The judge condemned him to die and it took the combined efforts of Clarence Darrow, of Julia Lathrop (who founded the Children's Bureau), of Jane Addams, and a few others to go to the Supreme Court. Since the youth had thrown himself on the mercy of the court the trial judge was bound, under the law, to examine into the mitigating circumstances. In such instances the judge has the obligation which goes with full discretion. Youth was the chief mitigating factor. It was a case which could have gone to juvenile court; or if tried in the adult criminal court the penalty could have been one to ten years or life.

Russell entered prison at the age of seventeen. The governor had commuted the death penalty to ninety-nine years.

I could not help comparing him as I saw him recently (after five years of the stiffest course of penal education) with the youth of our best secondary schools. I have seen also a good deal of the youth of our best private schools. Russell has a firmer grip on reality and a more subtle understanding. He has poise and that imponderable quality we call insight. I should say he is not only a better judge of men, but a better judge of himself. His present maturity of personality is astonishing.

Do you think that the prison system intended this result, or studied his needs, or adapted its discipline and instruction to bring about this education? Nothing is more unlikely. The grim prison went its course as irresistibly as a modern factory.

What happened is that a sensitive youth with durable quality was caught in the crisis of a prison sentence and by the shock method was forced to learn reality.

So the second thing that this Framingham prison experience has taught me is that prison is not of necessity all on the destructive side. We view our prisons with loathing or humiliation, as the confession of our failure, and well we might, but the point that I am trying to make to you educators and to myself is that it may be we have overlooked something in planning our schemes of education for youth. This something may be the offering of difficulty, limitation, and danger. I have observed that prison supplies these. There is great danger of arousing antagonism and repression, there is great danger in continuing these limitations too long, but at least for those who have never grown roots or for those who suddenly have been uprooted, the penal institution does have something to offer.

Perhaps you may find what I mean in that book called *Asylum* by Seabrook, the brilliant fellow who wanted to write but didn't want to put himself to the test of reality, and so he drank so everyone would say, "Look what a fine fellow is throwing himself away." Then when he got to the institution he found nothing he wanted to do which he could do, his

energy was challenged back upon himself and he faced reality; his shell cracked and for the first time he was able to make a diagnosis of his own loss of energy.

Perhaps we could provide more real responsibility for children and provide more actual crises in their lives—crises of reality—than we have done in this civilization.

A third thing that I have been taught by my Framingham experience is that a very small proportion of the people in the prisons are criminals. The vast majority, in the first instance, would not be in prison if this were Europe. We have a greater crime rate, because we have a different standard before the bar of justice. Perhaps 75 per cent of those in our prisons are there for domestic discord: a stubborn child, an adulterous or a deserting wife, neglect of minor child, drink, sex without a marriage license. In other words, you will find the crime problem by and large of the whole United States much smaller than you had ever thought it was, if you make an independent study. It looms large to us—I mean the crime which gets into the newspapers, the glaring crime problem—because it is a source of revenue to press, to police, and to politics.

And why is it a source of revenue to our newspapers? We read them. Why do we read the crime news with avidity? It is because when successful the criminal represents our own goals of civilization, namely, getting something with the least effort, getting something perhaps for nothing; living a life of little obligation and responsibility with the maximum of excitement, living by favor and escaping by luck; bartering true freedom for profits and health for indulgence or inertia. That is the type of thing we find so frequently in the community at large, the goals of the typical middle class family: money magic; something for nothing or very little—and whether we know it or not, when the criminal succeeds, the organized criminal, he is stimulated by the goals of our modern civilization toward "success."

I think the reason why so few reformatories and training schools reform, and possibly the reason why so few classes in

citizenship produce good citizens, is that the individuals therein find so few adults worthy of imitation. Personnel is very important. An intense caring is also important. And because I think Jane Addams expressed this better than anyone else, although I have told this story another time in Washington I am going to tell it here—of the social worker who climbed the tenement house steps. She was very tired. She had neglected her vacations. She saw the mother feeding this infant corned beef and cabbage and so she told her to stop and feed the child something else with vitamins. The tenement house mother looked at the tired social worker and said, "Well, Miss, you ain't no ad for them vittles."

For penal education, at least, it is essential that the personalities surrounding youth be worthy of imitation and possess worthwhile goals.

I think our educational system in process of flux, reevaluating its goals, will probably stress participation and citizenship more and more, and I want to warn you of those easy comforts the pseudo-scientists have given you, namely, that failures are all feeble-minded or psychotic.

The failures which burden your conscience are not those who merely fail in school but who succeed in penal institutions. For some of these I am willing to accept the diagnosis, feeble-minded or psychotic, though I confess it explains nothing about these persons. They must all share life in a modern world. Most of them can be trained and educated.

I assure you, were you forced suddenly to become superintendent of a prison, once you knew your group intimately, you would not be able to distinguish a body of American young prisoners from the student body of the average school for a similar age group. You would have to use the same methods, employ the same skills, reach for the same goals, and this to my mind puts new vitality in the hope of establishing in this country a Christian penology not based on a theory of awards and punishments, but on collective efforts to reach goals of vital citizenship.

Cooperative Aids for Financial Problems

By LLOYD MOREY

THE well-known legend of Mark Hopkins, the student and the log, constitutes a lovely tradition. It extols the intellectual processes of education which are the high purposes of educational endeavor. It minimizes the mechanical adjuncts and material accessories of the educational program.

Nevertheless, as a practical procedure, such an arrangement as the legend suggests is long since obsolete. The demands of education at all levels in our day are such that material aids of an extended character are both common and essential; and to carry on the kind of program which public, parents, and students alike insist upon requires the presence of an adequate staff, suitable facilities, and provision for continuity and permanence. The Educational Policies Commission points out in its excellent volume on *The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy* that "American Society could exist on some level of comfort and convenience without improved roads, electric lights, or sanitary codes; it did in the eighteenth century and at the same time demonstrated qualities of true greatness." The same might be said as to education. Instruction and research of a kind could be carried on without modern devices, but not in a way to correspond with our accepted standards of living.

The result of this condition is that financial support and financial administration are required. Before buildings can be built, equipment purchased, teachers employed, instruction begun, or research inaugurated, there must be a sound financial program. This program must give assurance that resources will be provided to the extent necessary to carry out the educational plan continuously and with reasonable completeness, and that, when those resources are provided, they will be conserved and administered in such a way as to achieve the

greatest effectiveness. For these reasons finance, though not the major purpose of education, becomes a part of every consideration relating to it. The efficient administration of finance, therefore, affects in a vital manner every step taken. Dr. Robert L. Kelly, for so long executive secretary of the Association of American Colleges, said in the 1936 *American Yearbook*, "The most serious problems with which college administrators have had to contend during the past few years have been in the field of finance."

Because of these facts, the American Council on Education about two years ago convinced the General Education Board that a Financial Advisory Service should be set up. Since that time this Service has been functioning on a modest budget with two full-time persons during the first year and three at present, and what time I am able to devote to it. Until December 1, 1936, George E. Van Dyke served as technical associate in charge of the office in Washington. Since that time, John B. Goodwin has filled this place, and since September 1, 1936 A. Robert Seass has been engaged as research assistant with Miss Winifred Reeves as office secretary. We have been working away quietly in aiding colleges and educational groups in finding principles of financial administration and in solving specific financial problems.

The work of the Service is carried on under the general guidance of an advisory committee of nine persons selected from various types of institutions and various sections of the country. The committee includes not only financial officers but one college president and a professor of education. The present members are:

J. Harvey Cain, assistant treasurer, Catholic University of America
John C. Christensen, controller and assistant secretary, University of Michigan

E. S. Erwin, assistant comptroller, Stanford University

Horace S. Ford, treasurer, Massachusetts Institute of Technology

F. L. Jackson, treasurer, Davidson College

John Dale Russell, associate professor of education, University of Chicago

John L. Seaton, president, Albion College

W. E. Wagoner, controller, Ball State Teachers College

It is a pleasure to record the devoted and effective endeavor of all persons who have been connected with the work.

The first purpose of the Service was to extend and solidify the work of the National Committee on Standard Reports for Institutions of Higher Education. This committee, as doubtless all present recall, made an exhaustive study of the problems of accounting and financial reporting for colleges and universities. The committee found that, in spite of much good work, there was a widespread lack of thoroughness and adequacy in these important matters, and a general absence of uniformity in procedure and terminology, or even of agreement on fundamental principles. In 1935 it issued its final report in the form of the volume, *Financial Reports for Colleges and Universities*, published by the University of Chicago Press. With that event it terminated its work and disbanded.

The recommendations of the committee were adopted speedily by the various business officers associations and other educational bodies and by many institutions. Yet there are many institutions that even now are not following them. The Council and the General Education Board did not wish this important work to stop when half done. They felt that too many excellent studies of the kind had ended with the publication and distribution of a report. For that reason, they endeavored to make provision for the further extension of this work until such a time as it will become generally accepted and the accounts and reports of all institutions brought to a high level of perfection and similarity.

But some of you may say—this is merely a matter of bookkeeping. Do not be misled; the subject is not one to be taken lightly. Bookkeeping, it is true, is not an end in itself. It is an incident in the production of information. But upon this information decisions of vital consequence continuously must be made. The bookkeeping records furnish much of the data on which nearly every question of administrative

policy must be decided. For this reason it is essential that the books be kept so as to record facts properly and provide needed information promptly and accurately. It is necessary that that information be correct, available when needed, and in a form readily understood. Otherwise, serious embarrassment sooner or later results, due solely to defective book-keeping.

Finance asserts itself in three ways in connection with educational administration: first, through planning; second, through operation; and third, through accountability. For each of these processes suitable tools and mechanisms are essential. In connection with the function of planning the most important financial tool is the budget. The great statesman, Gladstone, properly appraised the value of this instrument when he said: "Budgets are not merely affairs of arithmetic, but in a thousand ways go to the root of prosperity of individuals, the relation of classes, and the strength of kingdoms." No educational institution or organization, however small, can safely undertake to manage its finances without the guidance of a properly prepared and wisely administered budget.

In the functions of operation in an educational institution—by which we mean every activity having to do with the daily on-going of the organization in all its phases—finance enters into practically every consideration. In employment, in purchasing, in plant operation, maintenance, and development, in producing and collecting income, the financial implications are ever present. For all of these activities an adequate accounting system is necessary, for through it must constantly be made available the financial facts needed both for administrative guidance and control and for evidence of fidelity of officers and employees responsible for handling financial matters.

Inseparably allied to the problem of operation is that of accountability which expresses itself through properly prepared financial reports. All of these instrumentalities—the

budget, the accounts, the reports—constitute essential tools of financial administration necessary for the proper guidance of every educational institution. The Financial Advisory Service is concerned with all of them.

In promoting improved methods of accounting and reporting the Financial Advisory Service has invited institutional officers to submit their financial reports for criticism and comment. We were asked by 124 institutions to make such an examination and in many cases the forms of statements were revised in the office and submitted to the institutions concerned with full explanations. The Service has in its files the financial reports, published or typewritten, of over 250 collegiate institutions.

The Service has received approximately 200 requests for advice on specific problems other than those relating to the analysis of financial reports. Among the subjects on which help has been requested are the following:

1. Problems of investment of endowment funds.
2. Plans for financial campaigns.
3. Insurance on buildings and equipment.
4. Depreciation of plant.
5. Faculty housing.
6. Unit costs of instruction.
7. Allocation of funds to various activities.
8. Faculty retirement and annuity plans.
9. Organization of the governing board and its committees.
10. Preparation and operation of the budget.
11. Administration of student loan funds.
12. Duties and responsibilities of the chief business officer.
13. Legislation affecting colleges and universities.
14. Accounting for contributed service in Catholic institutions.
15. Legal status of gift funds with respect to their trust character.

In addition to correspondence, the technical associate has visited twenty-nine institutions at their invitation and expense,

one state department of education, and one church board of education. In all of these cases specific help was given in problems relating to financial management.

The Service has also organized and aided in the carrying out of four conferences dealing especially with accounting and reporting. These include:

1. The first meeting of business officers of the Pacific Coast institutions as a result of which an association of business officers in that area was organized, held at Stanford University, March 1936.

2. Accounting conference for institutions in New England and the North Atlantic states held in New York City, April 1936.

3. Program on problems of financial administration in the college and university department of the National Catholic Educational Association, Louisville, April 1937.

4. Program on accounting and financial reporting, Southern Association of College and University Business Officers, Atlanta, April 1937.

Members of the staff have attended or addressed fifteen other meetings of collegiate associations.

The Service has prepared and published eight bulletins on matters dealing with financial administration and has made a first distribution of these bulletins without charge to all colleges and universities. In addition, several articles on specific subjects have been prepared and published in various educational journals.

The Service has cooperated with a number of existing organizations and agencies in dealing with problems within its scope, including the various business officers associations, United States Office of Education, the Tennessee State Department of Education, and several church boards of education. A cooperative project on uniform accounting and financial reporting for teachers colleges was recently set up in conjunction with the American Association of Teachers Colleges. A similar undertaking is in prospect in the junior college field.

The Service has in preparation an accounting manual for small colleges describing in detail a system of accounts and reports for such institutions which will be in harmony with the recommendations of the National Committee on Standard Reports. G. A. Mills, bursar of Princeton University, is preparing this volume with the aid of an editorial committee consisting of F. M. Cochran, business manager, Albion College; F. L. Jackson, treasurer, Davidson College; and W. B. Franke, C.P.A., New York City. This volume will be published and distributed to the colleges in the near future. The Service is also working with the superintendents of buildings and grounds in the development of a cost system for their activities which will provide more adequate information and methods of control of the expenditures relating thereto.

The importance of endowment in educational finance is almost too obvious to be mentioned. Over 70 per cent of the collegiate institutions of the country are of the privately controlled type depending largely upon the income from endowment to maintain their work. The management of endowment funds presents many problems. The necessity for a strict accounting and segregation of such funds to preserve principal and at the same time secure the largest income possible makes this problem in many respects the greatest which privately controlled institutions have to face.

The management of such funds is never a simple or easy matter. In the immediate past, however, the unusual conditions prevailing have resulted in the creation of new and more difficult problems. Because of this fact, the General Education Board asked the Service to determine as accurately as possible just what has happened to endowment funds in the past ten years. An intimate study has been made of a representative group of institutions. For the purpose of the study, the group was divided into three divisions based on the amount of endowment. Comparable figures for a ten-year period, both as to amount of endowment and amount of income therefrom, were compiled and checked. The results

of the study were used in part by Dr. Trevor Arnett in his recently published paper on "Observations on the Financial Condition of Colleges and Universities in the United States."¹ The complete material was presented in the April issue of *THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD* and has been reprinted in a separate bulletin. I hardly need to tell you that it shows clearly that the colleges are losing ground with respect to their endowment, which means that if their work is to be preserved and strengthened sources of increase in this endowment or of other income to take its place shortly must be found.

A closely related subject has to do with the nature of obligations of governing boards as trustees of funds which they receive. These obligations vary in different states and in accordance with the conditions of different gifts. The exact nature of such obligations upon trustees are all too little understood and all too frequently disregarded. An analysis of the problems relating to this subject will be published shortly.

All of these undertakings deal with specific items of financial management. Nevertheless the necessity for a broad basis of approach to the entire field of financial administration has not been overlooked. The National Committee succeeded in setting up fundamental principles of accounting and reporting. There is a further need, however, for principles and standards covering all phases of business practice. This subject is now under study in cooperation with the business officers associations. Out of it it is hoped that what may be termed a check-list on administrative efficiency in the business and financial realm may be compiled similar to guides for educational services which already exist. When that is done, manuals of procedure for the guidance of institutional officers and employees are contemplated. The outline of one such manual in the purchasing field is already in preparation in cooperation with the Educational Buyers Association.

Closely related to this subject is that of training and opportunity in the field of collegiate business administration. Edu-

¹New York: General Education Board, 1937.

cational business administration has become an important field of service. Its development has been recent and rapid. Its responsibilities are such that specific training and experience are needed to fit persons properly for its duties.

In past years suitably trained persons were not available for such positions and institutional boards and executives were obliged to make appointments from among persons fitted in the best way possible by personal qualities and general business experience. The field is one for which young persons should be encouraged to a limited extent to prepare, so that institutions may be enabled to find for vacant positions individuals who have had the proper background and experience. The Financial Advisory Service has just published a bulletin containing a statement of qualities to be sought for in this respect and methods by which those interested in careers of this kind may prepare themselves.

Many other subjects of equal importance to the foregoing are on our calendar for attention when time and resources make it possible. The list indicates to a degree the extent of problems of financial management which confront administrators in colleges and universities at the present time, and the extent of interest in finding the best ways of meeting them.

The Financial Advisory Service is a cooperative movement. It is a part of the American Council on Education which is itself a cooperative organization. Its work is made possible through the cooperation and aid of the General Education Board. Its cooperative character is further emphasized by its advisory committee and by its close relationship to business officers associations and other educational bodies. In every way possible it endeavors to work in cooperation with other agencies interested in problems with which it seeks to deal.

It is upon the advantages of such cooperation over regimentation or centralized direction in education that I wish to dwell. In higher education, especially, the importance of institutional autonomy and freedom of effort cannot be too strongly emphasized. Again quoting from the Educational Policies Commission in *The Unique Function of Education in*

American Democracy: "School and college authorities are compelled by the obligations of their trust to safeguard the fundamental nature of the educational functions, and to point out with unceasing reiteration its primary and basic character, its intellectual and moral contributions to the maintenance of the society upon which all services depend for their existence and support." Central agencies provide the ways and means for setting up ideals and standards and for bringing about exchange of experiences and ideas. There are some matters such as financial reporting in which uniformity is advantageous and this uniformity can be brought about through the efforts of central agencies of a cooperative type such as the Financial Advisory Service. It is far better that this condition be realized through such voluntary efforts than through mandatory laws or regulations, even though a longer time is required for the purpose. The cooperative program leaves the way open for individuality of action where that is needed but brings emphasis on the advantages of authority and standardization to the extent mutually advantageous. It is this kind of autonomy for which we should steadily strive in higher education. The greatest achievements in scientific endeavor and in the imparting and increase of knowledge have been attained more through institutional and individual initiative and through cooperation than through legislation.

Cooperation is needed in the field of higher education not only among institutions of similar types but among all institutions. There is a tendency to set privately controlled schools into a group distinct from publicly supported universities and colleges. It is frequently suggested that they have little or nothing in common. It is even suggested on occasion that these groups are in competition with each other. This seems to me exceedingly unfortunate. All of our types of higher education forms of organization have their place and their importance. Each type has its problems and difficulties, and I do not believe it can be said that these burdens are more or less heavy in one group than in another. The private institutions wish eagerly for the seemingly inexhaustible resources of the state to rely upon for support, forgetting the

difficult problems of relationships with political departments inherent in that situation. The public institutions long for wealthy and beneficent alumni to endow them, and the freedom from interference of governmental officers and bodies, forgetting the manifold obligations which attach to such gifts and the sleepless nights of uncertainty as to when the needed gifts may materialize. Neither can be said to have a definite advantage over the other. Furthermore, the differences are by no means as great as may at first seem. The National Committee on Standard Reports found perfectly feasible what at first seemed impossible—a broad plan of accounting and reporting equally applicable to both public and private institutions. The same will apply in many other situations and will be found to be equally advantageous to both groups.

Clearly, the greatest need of higher education in this day is additional and more secure financial resources. Unfortunately, the Financial Advisory Service can aid institutions very little in meeting this greatest problem. It would have little difficulty in justifying its existence and securing universal blessing if it could. But it can aid in a measure in improving administration of available resources, and thereby increasing their effectiveness. Thus even the "widow's mite" may be made to serve for another day, and the confidence needed to inspire added support materially enlarged.

The financial future of higher education is not clear. It never has been clear. But this is evident of it at present: There is a definite call for a more intensive analysis of financial problems. Higher education is constantly being subjected to greater tests as to whether even the present outlays for it are justified. Yet we who are here all well know that even these outlays are insufficient and that they must steadily increase if the work is to be done adequately and properly. If support is to be secured for such a program, facts to justify it must be available, together with evidence of sound and wise financial administration. The Financial Advisory Service hopes to contribute in a small way toward making it possible for every collegiate institution to meet these problems in the most thorough and convincing manner possible.

Mirrors of Education

By RAYMOND A. KENT

THIS area and activity which we call education, were it not for the large sums which we see and hear in these more recent days, would seem to be nothing short of big business, and in spite of the fact that other figures may make them seem small I shall cite some amounts.

According to the latest data that are available from the United States Office of Education, the amount invested in physical plant in higher education in America is \$2,253,000,000; the amount in endowment is \$1,539,728,000. The annual expenditure for educational and general purposes is \$369,661,000; for capital outlays, \$29,503,000; for auxiliary activities and other non-educational activities, \$39,668,000; a total annual outlay for higher education in America of \$438,832,000.

In secondary education the annual expense, including capital outlay, is \$603,335,000. This makes a total between higher and secondary education of \$1,042,167,000.

I submit to you that these are considerable sums. I wish that I might have obtained information on higher education particularly with reference to the amounts that are involved in the support of general education, for that is the part to which I shall direct my remarks. Of course, professional education is included in these figures, but inasmuch as professional education is affected by, as well as associated with, general education in these higher educational institutions, these figures may not be altogether out of place.

Since its beginning, as has already been referred to by our chairman of the evening, America has had great faith in education. The founders of this country had great faith in education, and through their faith that was expressed in works they made their impress which has remained with us until the present time in some cases. Witness Benjamin Franklin, Thomas

Jefferson, and George Washington; although the last did not succeed in having a national university built, there are several which bear his name, and there is still continuing activity for the founding of a national university. From then until now the American people have had not only unshaken and continuous faith, but increasingly have expressed their faith in general education.

The questions are often asked: What is general education for? What are the results that we may expect from it? Although we seem to be unanimous in our faith, our answers to these questions are certainly not unanimous. One of the most noted of American university presidents said, in an address delivered in this city last January before a group of educators, that a course in Cherokee well taught was better as an educational discipline than a course in current history.

Another quite as outstanding president of a leading American university in two recent annual reports has stressed in no uncertain terms his conviction that one of the major responsibilities of the institution over which he presides is to see that the men whom it graduates are gentlemen. More recently he is reported through the press to have written a letter to a school child in an adjoining state in which he attested his judgment as to the great importance of the study of foreign languages to achieve the purposes of general education. In this letter he was not reported to have associated the attainment of the objective which he said is that of general education, namely, to make gentlemen, with the study of foreign languages, but one is left to draw his own conclusion.

Another leading American university president has said on more than one occasion, and has written in more than one place, that the sole interest which general education should have in the student is in his intellectual development.

These three men are frequently quoted. They are real leaders in American higher education. Here are three disparate statements—answers if you please—to the questions: What is general education for, what are the results which we may expect from it? I said a few moments ago that America

has great faith in general education, and I spoke by the Word, because in the first verse of the eleventh chapter of Hebrews it is stated by that man who was one of the leaders of the "New Deal" in Hebraism: "Faith is the substance of things hoped for, the evidence of things not seen," or as is stated in the American translation by Professor Goodspeed: "Faith means the assurance of what we hope for. It is our conviction about things we cannot see."

We seldom turn to the student to ask what he thinks college ought to be for, or the results that he thinks should come from it. But a gentleman is reported to me recently as having told of an experience he had in connection with his perambulations over the country as representative of one of the government activities. He made up his mind that he was going to inquire from students as to why they came to college, and he stopped one on the campus, a young woman, and asked her why she came to college. As he told it, she shifted from her left foot to her right, changed her gum from the east side of her mouth to the west, and said: "I came to college hoping to be went with, but it ain't yet." That was faith in what she anticipated, but rather a realistic observation on the outcome.

Some of the indices with respect to general education which seem to me to be worthy of attention at the present time are more or less implicit in the attitude which we have toward it—that is the one of faith. Yesterday morning the Problems and Plans Committee listened to a statement made by one who is carrying on an activity associated with the American Council. In this statement the Committee was told that a certain report on secondary education had been sent out to some twenty men who were accepted as leaders in this field, and they were asked what they thought about it, with the result that there was unanimous disagreement on everything except one point, and that is that something ought to be done about it.

We have still represented in our secondary schools and in our colleges (independent colleges and colleges associated with universities) not merely the rudiments in most cases but

still to a considerable degree the core of a curriculum which has been with us since the founding of the first American college three hundred years ago; and the new arguments, which in a way are not any longer new, as to why certain subjects are retained in that curriculum indicate a lack of familiarity with the reasons for their original inclusion. Particularly is this true, for example, with reference to mathematics and Latin, originally inserted into the curriculum, not in this country but before it got to this country, as tools to be used by persons who were to enter specific types of occupations. The reasons alleged why these are to be retained now are no longer associated with occupational relationships but with what is called a culture or cultural outcomes that are to accrue from them. Someone has well said recently, speaking of that kind of a curriculum, that those subjects when originally put in were for an aristocracy of education, and those who still cling to such a curriculum, or who still advocate it, either in the secondary school or in the college, are clinging to only the tatters of the garments of an educational aristocracy.

For three hundred years the philosophy of faith has dominated general education in America. For three hundred years we have relied chiefly upon the same instruments to achieve whatever goals in our judgment should be achieved at any particular time. You will say that this statement is untrue because in the meanwhile science has come in, natural sciences and social sciences, and I will admit that you are right. But at the same time we still have the arguments, we still have the curricula that were set up originally, and ground has been given to these newer subjects only slowly and grudgingly.

The old solutions, the solutions on old bases, the answers to the questions which I have raised, what is general education for and what results should we expect from it, have been given to us and we have accepted them from authoritarian sources. The results have been predetermined on the part of those who have given the answers, and on the part of those who have accepted those answers. At least the latter have tacitly agreed to these results. They have been determined in an

authoritarian way, first, from theological sources; in later years, from legalistic and from metaphysical sources. We call them philosophical, we say that we have a philosophy of education and from that source we derive the reasons why we should give certain types of curricula and certain courses of study and contents thereof.

During the time that has elapsed between the original acceptance of these courses and the present there have been some most significant things. When Harvard College was opened there were no public schools in America, there was no "people's school" as we hear that term used on occasion now. After a while a public school system was started, a publicly supported system was set up. Today according to figures which are available and known to many of you, perhaps most of you, there is justifiable ground for stating that the secondary school in America is rapidly becoming the people's school, because the proportion of young people who are eligible to attend it is increasing in such a ratio that it is constantly absorbing larger numbers of those who are of the years to attend it.

But not only is that true; another change is coming to pass. In the earliest days there was widespread illiteracy and the first object of education in this country was to teach people to read and write, mainly to read the Scriptures intelligently, then getting down into the larger masses of people, to do away with the widespread illiteracy. Later, as agricultural pursuits gave place gradually to industrial development, we had other purposes to be served for the general population. Vocational education later came in. But today a situation prevails the like of which was unknown in the earliest years, and the parallel of which has never before been known in this country. There is no occupation in which one may engage today, there is no vocation into which one may enter, which does not have shot through and through it certain implications of a social character. The result is, as has been so forcefully set forth in that remarkable little volume from the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association, those who

engage in industry today engage in a vocation which must take account, if it is to be as intelligent and efficient as industry, of social conditions, social forces, social relationships whose accounting was never before given any considerable attention by such groups.

It was only last week, I believe, that a national association of physicians meeting in St. Louis was addressed by one who is considered by many today to be the leading social philosopher of America, John Dewey. As Mr. Dewey spoke to that group he said: "It is of no use for you to heal men's bodies unless you can help men to live together more effectively and more successfully."

Because of these changes that have come about, because of our using, if I may speak of it as such, an old instrument in general education—partly for these reasons; not wholly, to be sure—certain results are making themselves evident. They are showing themselves on the one hand within the confines of formal education itself. As we look the field over, as we consider certain things which have happened in recent years, as we see the trend that is unmistakably upon us, these considerations among others seem to justify the statement that there is no activity within colleges and universities of America, taking the country as a whole today, that is more potential of harm and more inimical to the genuine fundamental educational purposes and achievement of these institutions than is intercollegiate athletics.

In another field we find that the presence and the administration of formalized social life in institutions is another phase that has gotten out of hand, so to speak, of general education. At least it has in the judgment of some. I am not now passing judgment upon it myself. We find for example, that in Swarthmore College within the last few years sororities by vote of the women students themselves have been dispensed with; and while I do not know the exact situation, according to press reports that seem to be reliable, something of that kind is about to occur with respect to fraternities at Dartmouth College.

There is still another direction in which we find that the interests and activities of students themselves have broken through the confines of the limitations imposed by our own traditional general education. For the last two or three years on April 22 there has occurred on many college campuses throughout this country something that administrators in many cases just haven't known what to do with. It has been the object of ridicule and of severe criticism by the "100 percenter" Americans, by alumni of certain types, and by citizens who feel that the future of the country has been imperiled by the activities which have occurred on that day. I refer to the advance sit-down war strike, the so-called "Peace Strike" on college campuses.

Nobody for one moment, it seems to me, irrespective of his judgment as to its merits or demerits, will deny that the main issue involved and taken under consideration by the students concerned is of paramount importance not merely to these students as they live into the future, but to the welfare of this country as a whole. And yet we find such divergent methods of handling it. We find it pushed to one side in some institutions as though it had nothing to do with the life of the college. We find it unrecognized and without a possibility of being recognized, as though it had nothing to do with the student life or student interests, except in a damaging way. This is another illustration of where our traditional concepts with respect to the content of general education will not hold. It is new wine in old bottles, and the bottles have already burst.

And then there are certain problems which are on the outside, so to speak, of these educational institutions, and are there to some degree certainly because of the conditions I have indicated with respect to general education. May I group two or three of these under the general heading of the lack of satisfactory adjustment of young people. Whether this is what we call the "youth problem" or whether we can define that problem, I don't pretend to know; but I do know that young men and women are finding it increasingly difficult to make certain adjustments.

Not only is it true with respect to young men and women. It is true also with respect to children, growing partly, for example, out of the fact that the American home is having inroads made upon it by what we call divorce; that it is having voices come into it over a metal wire, which voices cannot be kept out if you have a certain instrument, and yet whose influence upon the ideals and emotions, as well as upon the informational contents of the minds of children within that home, is tremendous.

This lack of proper adjustment arises also because of economic situations more recently developing, which we refer to as unemployment; and in this connection some of us are inclined to forget the increasing unemployment of young people by reason of court decisions and legislation, and that this condition with respect to unemployment is not something which will go away when and if the depression goes. It has not gone as the depression has gone. It is to remain with us, and it is to remain with us partly because of this legislation and these decisions supporting it, and partly because of the increasing ratio of adults to youth. There is not the opportunity for youth that there once was. There is not the number of jobs when youth reaches a certain age that there used to be, because there are more people adult in age for those jobs in ratio to the number of young people applying for them than there were formerly.

These are some of the areas where young people are finding it difficult to make satisfactory adjustments.

I have mentioned general results coming out of this situation with respect to the education that has come down to us traditionally: first, certain things within the schools; second, a lack of adjustment by youth. Third, I should like to mention the increasing influence of numerous groups upon youth. Yesterday we heard stated to us in a report, the same report to which I referred a few moments ago, the fact that there are over 900 non-government youth-serving agencies which have been identified in this country; that in the single city of Dallas there are over 400 non-government youth-serving agencies.

And as this study has gone on in different communities, it has discovered that among these several hundreds in a given community there has sometimes been no exchange, no cooperation between any two, but that each one works independently.

I do not know whether the next group that I mention may overlap with this, but from another source, the latest biennial report of President Coffman, of the University of Minnesota, we may get the information that there are over 300 agencies operating in this country trying to capture youth, trying to get youth committed to do or not to do certain things.

Now I mention these as illustrative of the point, please remember, that there is an increasing influence of numerous groups operating upon youth outside of educational institutions.

Those of you who were in attendance at this morning's session heard a most penetrating diagnosis with respect to certain influences that are operating upon institutions of higher education through legislation, and particularly through the legislation that has to do with financial appropriations to colleges and to universities. While this does not operate directly upon the young people themselves who are in educational institutions, the indirectness is painfully near direct in many instances; and wherever such influences impinge upon an educational institution their final effects come to lodge in the students themselves.

There is apparently in certain sources also not only the inclination but the determination on the part of those who have influence because of certain favors which they have to bestow, financial or otherwise, to see that certain predetermined results are achieved in the kind of general education that is to prevail in this country; or to see that the desired result takes place as far as these influences can bring it to pass.

I have striven so far in these few moments to outline what seems to me to be some of the chief considerations due to the fact that our general education has been accepted traditionally; that it has been determined by an authoritarian method and accepted as such; and that in spite of all these

facts, with the resulting handicaps accruing from them, we still have tremendous faith in it.

It seems to be incumbent upon me before finishing my statement to indicate what may possibly be a line of improvement, if I may speak of it as such. In the first place, I should say that one of the first things we must do is to free ourselves from our educational stereotypes. We have them, we must admit it. No one who attends an educational meeting of any sort where there is any extended discussion or presentation of papers, where objective data are considered, can escape the conviction that one of the most serious handicaps to progress of any sort in education, not merely general but professional as well, is the presence of educational stereotypes. As one gentleman said to me today:

In our institution there are some men who were trained in the University of A——— under the presidency of Dr. H———, and in the judgment of these men anybody who didn't come from that institution, who wasn't trained under the leadership of that president, just isn't to be trusted educationally.

Now that may be an extreme illustration, although I am not so sure that it is. It is at least one illustration of an educational stereotype.

The next thing that is necessary is that we supplement our faith, which I do not for one moment deride, and which I think we must still maintain, with knowledge. Our failure to do this isn't because knowledge is not available. It is available, though perhaps not to the extent or to the degree of refinement that we desire and that it will be increasingly in time to come. But that is no reason why we should not consider the knowledge that is now at hand.

What is the method used by the physician? When he goes to see a patient what is it that he does first? He makes a diagnosis. Without a correct diagnosis the chances of the patient's being assisted even, to say nothing of his being cured, are very, very slim. The men who make diagnosing their specialty, and who are particularly successful in it, are ranked

among the greatest in the whole field of medical practice. But diagnosing is only the first step. The second step is to prescribe on the basis of the diagnosis. Did you ever hear of a physician going in to a patient, taking a look at him and saying, "Yes, I know what you ought to have," turning back into the pages of the tomes of history and saying, "This is what was used 250 years ago; I know that it was good then and it must be good now; take this and these will be the results"? Predetermined! Why, to make such a statement is to reveal the utter absurdity of it. Yet that is the very sort of procedure which we are prone to follow in education.

And so there is diagnosis and prescription; but there is a third step which the good physician never fails to take. After the diagnosis is made, absolutely accurate as it may be, after the prescription has been made and taken, what does the good physician do? He finds out how his prescription is working. He checks on it. He finds out whether something else is better, whether the individual reactions to the prescription in this case differ from those in some other case, and therefore whether his treatment of this case must be different from his treatment of some other case.

You say this is all well and good in the field of medicine, and it is easy to use it as an illustration. Yesterday there was presented to this same Problems and Plans Committee a report which contained a paragraph the like of which I have never seen in any report or in any statement associated with the American Council. It is made in a report submitted on personnel work: "Every year over a hundred thousand students graduate from our colleges. What happens to them and what effect their college work has had upon their vocational and personal adjustments we can only guess." But we have done a lot more. On the basis of what we hoped would result, we have said just what the results actually were. But this report says we can only guess. The report further states: "We therefore propose that the committee [on student personnel work] develop a method for making follow-up studies

and that this method be made available to interested institutions."

That statement is curiously related to the principle that is followed by the good physician, of checking up on the prescription.

That there has been very definite advance in the last quarter century in measuring the results of education objectively, nobody who is informed would for one moment deny. But those measurements have been almost, if not totally, exclusively along the lines of how much and how well the student has learned *what we prescribed he should learn*. There have been almost no measurements; there have been almost no attempts objectively to determine what the total effect upon each individual has been by reason of the experiences that come to him during the time that he has been in an educational institution. Please notice I do not say during the time that he has been studying.

And yet, my friends, would you deny for one moment that the influence of a "Peace Strike," on certain students at least, is deeper upon their attitudes, and especially upon their emotional life, than some whole year's courses?

What seems to me to be at least a suggestive outline of what might be done is a study on an extended basis with respect both to the number of people involved and the time to be covered in these individual cases. The study should attempt to find out as best it can the effect upon the individual's total personality, of the experiences that come to the individual by reason of his presence in an educational institution, in the classroom and out, in these several directions: physical, social, emotional, moral-religious, and intellectual. Henry Suzzalo, that great educational American leader, whose death was a most lamentable loss, said in an address years ago and later published in THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD that we must think of the individual as a total personality; and a total personality includes all of these phases.

Education must do something of this kind. There are those of you who are saying in your minds now: "It is utterly

futile to talk about it. We don't have the instruments. It can't be done." If education doesn't do it, we are going to face a situation which I am not at all sure is not already before us. There is going to be a determination of certain things with respect to general education, and that determination is going to be made on the basis of reason or force.

If it is to be on the basis of reason, it will be concluded from information that can be collected, that can be more or less well classified, and from which conclusions can be drawn objectively. We cannot do this well at the present time, I will admit; but we can make a beginning.

If the determination is going to be on the basis of force, it is going to be made by that group or that influence which will have the greatest power to decide what the content and form of general education will be. We hold up certain men in foreign countries who exercise dictatorial powers, and crucify them with our criticism. We say, as I heard expressed in a phrase yesterday, that they are socializing the youth of their respective countries. But I submit to you, my friends, already the youth of this country are being socialized today by forces which are at work with as great influence as they know how to bring to bear; and if our choice is to be made only on the basis of opinion as to what ought to be or what ought not to be the content of the training of these youth in what we call general education, opinion is not what is going to decide it. What is finally going to decide it is who has the greater authority or power to put the program into operation. When we come to that place, what in principle will be the difference between the condition that exists abroad and the condition which will confront us here?

The Relationship of the Various Freedoms of Speech

By CHESTER H. ROWELL

YOU have just had in a hundred-faceted mirror the reflection of the complex scene of American education. You have asked me to speak upon only one aspect of it. That is the aspect of freedom of speech in its various ramifications, and I suppose primarily in those ramifications that touch particularly upon you. Nevertheless, the broader freedom of speech, of which your freedom is one aspect, is now at a tragic crisis in this world. Looking out over the world we find that the vast majority of it is under a worse than medieval tyranny; that the spots on earth in which a man may speak his mind and print his discoveries and urge his opinions are getting increasingly narrow. Against that goose-stepping of the human soul, at least some nations must stand fast, until once more a new renaissance of freedom can arise among men and the human spirit be free again all around this earth.

As a newspaper man I suppose I should speak first of the freedom of the press, and yet in this audience I will merely refer to it. It is the second of freedoms. The freedom to produce knowledge is the first, the freedom to distribute it is second, and the second would be worthless without the first. We are to consider freedom of speech as the common right of men and academic freedom as the special privilege of the accredited professor within his field, and then a whole range of freedoms in between which verge toward one or toward the other.

One must also consider as affecting your profession those things which the teacher has the right to do in his classroom, those things that he has the right to do outside of his classroom, and those things which he ought not to be prohibited from doing but which he should refrain from doing. We must

also consider the aspects of it as they go through primary education, secondary education, higher education, and adult education, because against these varying backgrounds the forms in which freedom may most usefully be exercised vary also.

First as to the abstract freedom of speech as a common right of man. Even that is not an absolute right. There is no such thing as the right directly to incite to crime, because if the incitement is direct it becomes a part of the act and it is construed by the law to be an act and not merely a word. There is no right to libel, though there is the right not to be prevented beforehand from committing it, but to be punished for it afterward. It is possible to use words in such a way that they constitute a disturbance of the peace. It is no man's right—and this is often overlooked—in exercising his right to say what he pleases, to require anybody else to listen to it. The correlative of freedom of speech is freedom of listening. The soap-box orator must satisfy himself with such audience as he can get and hold, and in your profession it is necessary to realize that where the audience is compulsory, as it is in schools, the right to speak to it may properly limit itself to the subject of the compulsion.

The arithmetic teacher in the arithmetic class should teach arithmetic in that class, and if that teacher wishes to expound his views on theosophy, or upon the President's newest proposal, he should do it to an audience which comes voluntarily for that purpose and has the right to leave.

Ramifying these various freedoms, as I pointed out, freedom of speech is not absolute, and yet freedom of speech, the common right of the citizen, includes the right to do and be a lot of things which the teacher should refrain from being. Common freedom of speech includes the right to be foolish; it includes the right to be ignorant; it includes the right to be fanatical; it includes the right to be violently prejudiced; it includes the right even not to be stopped beforehand, though one may be punished afterwards for being malicious and libelous and scandalous. These are all parts of the right of common freedom of speech. They should not be prohibited,

but men of intelligence and good taste do not do them, and it is perfectly arguable that he who chooses to do them thereby demonstrates his disqualification for a position in which good sense and good taste are primary qualifications.

So also the teacher should have the right as a citizen outside the classroom to do the things that any citizen may do, but also should have the responsibility as a teacher not to do those things in a personal capacity which may seem to involve the institution in its public capacity; in other words, to exercise that good sense and that good taste which belong to the members of a learned and highly qualified profession.

This is only too briefly a mere suggestion of the common right of freedom of speech. At the other extreme is the special privilege of academic freedom. This is a highly special privilege. It is the privilege of the accredited scholar in his own field to make the discoveries and the conclusions that he thinks are right, and to promulgate them uncensored by any authority whatever, governmental or academic. This is a fundamental right, not of the professor but of the right of society to progress. It is not the merely personal privilege of the professor, and if it were, there is no reason why anybody else should care. The personal privilege of the professor is exactly as important as the personal privilege of the doctor or of the lawyer or of the fireman. The fireman is perhaps the best illustration. The fireman has the right with screaming siren to roar down the street, to stop all traffic, to violate all rules, and to suspend the rights of everybody else. If he were to use that siren on his personal car to get home to dinner quicker, he would be a violator of the law. His right to usurp the rights of everybody else is a public right in the interest of the public safety.

So the privilege of the professor is a privilege which belongs to no one else who is in an organized capacity. It is his right as a member of the university to do that which the newspaper writer as a member of a newspaper does not have the right to do. It is the right which the salesman has not the right to do. The salesman who thinks that his company's toothpaste will

not do the thing that his company advertises it to do should quit that job as a salesman and get a job with Consumers' Research before he says so.

This right of institutional nonconformity, this right of varying members of the same institution to promulgate contrary doctrines, to differ publicly and if necessary violently, and to have nobody to stand over them, is the highly special privilege of the university man, and the reason for it is not personal to himself. He has no more personal rights than anybody else.

And yet even this high special privilege of academic freedom in the very narrowest sense is, I think, the central and most important liberty of mankind, because it is the one liberty without which no other is worth anything. If there is not the liberty of those at the vanguard of knowledge to push on beyond its boundaries into what has been the darkness of ignorance, there can be no progress.

Between Socrates and Hitler lies the whole gamut of western civilization. We may start at either end and go to the other, and in between, or we might do both at once. But at any rate, in the Hitler end of it you find that, of all the evils of that tyrannical regime, the worst is the poisoning of the wells of knowledge, the drying up of the springs of progress.

My profession has put on the front page as the most dramatic of Hitler's tyrannies his persecution of the Jews. Very well; that is an outrage. But it is perhaps no more outrageous that Hitler should persecute the Jews than that the Russians did, and that resilient race which has survived a thousand persecutions will survive this. It is a less evil to have done injustice to 1 per cent of the German people than it is to have corrupted the intellects of the other 99 per cent. To abuse the Jew is outrageous, but to compel the ethnologists of Germany to teach to the people of Germany an unscientific racialism which no ethnologist on earth believes to be a scientific fact is a far greater, because a far deeper, evil. When persecution was based on prejudice and on religious narrowness, the rays of enlightenment could light it away, but when injustice and anti-science are put into the very basis

of the intellectual training of a people, then the more logical they are, the more certain they are to reach false conclusions upon it.

This has been done. I have used the Jews and ethnology as an illustration. It has been done in the whole range of German science. German professors of history are required to teach as history that which they know not to be history. German professors are dragooned. Some of them have run away from it, some have revolted against it, and some that I know are living with patience under it in the hope that they will survive long enough to see the lid at last raised and that their lives may be completed in the atmosphere of truth.

It is a spirit so narrow that mathematics is under suspicion because Einstein is a Jew; a spirit in which a large share of the best of German literature is expurgated or omitted. Lessing could write *Nathan der Weise* under Frederick the Great, but no German actor would dare produce it in Germany now.

I have my own vivid memories of the Germany of the Kaisers. As an American believing in freedom I never learned intellectually to approve of that regime, but I personally lived very happily under it. However little political freedom there was, there was academic freedom in the universities. There was *Lehrfreiheit und Lernfreiheit*. Bismarck in his very period of blood and iron, when he wouldn't tolerate a Socialist as a street sweeper, let the universities alone. In the State University of Prussia, in the University of Berlin, I heard Socialist lectures by Socialist professors and there was a Socialist *Rektor* of the University. The soul of Germany was saved by that one liberty.

Those of us who belong to the generation that knew those German universities in the years of their greatness have something more than an academic regret at the corruption that has gone into them. We feel a personal resentment and a personal bitterness that something which we loved so much has been made for the time being unworthy of either love or respect.

That is only one of the liberties that belongs even to the

specialized class of professors, and I have described that liberty within its very narrowest lines. It is within the right of the teacher of economics to teach economics as he will, but I have not referred to the right of the professor of mathematics to have any economic opinions whatever, though doubtless he has them. As we go further, we see the various ramifications of this problem of liberty as it applies to school teachers all the way up. Perhaps the greatest absurdity in it is this recent mania that has expressed itself in the teachers' oath, the worst form of which did exist, and for all I know may still exist, right here in this capital city of the nation, in which every primary teacher each month before she drew her salary had to sign an oath that that month she had not taught communism in her classes.

I don't suppose there was a single teacher in all these schools that had any desire to teach communism in her classes, but if there were one, she would have been the very one who would have taken that oath with least compunction.

It is a part of a temporary hysteria. Our people are given to these periodic hysterias. You know how about once in a generation we get a violent anti-Catholic and anti-foreign agitation: the "Know-Nothing" one before the war, the A.P.A. which some of us are old enough to remember, the Ku Klux Klan of more recent evil memory. Now if during the A.P.A. agitation each priest before saying mass had been required to sign an oath that there were no rifles in his basement, he could have signed that oath with perfect truth—there were no rifles there—but it would have been an intolerable insult to require him to do it.

There is no harm in taking the Oath of Allegiance. I don't know how many times I have done it myself. I hope I will never hold any more public offices and so have to do it again, but I would do it without the slightest hesitation. But if I were required to do it to remove from myself the suspicion of prostituting my place as a teacher, I would do it with resentment, and if it had any effect on me at all it would be to make me a less loyal and not a more loyal American.

Now the crusade and the problem in its varying degrees goes through those schools. It is different in the primary and the secondary and the higher education and in adult education, because they are different. The first characteristic of the primary school is that it is primary. It is, however, only the second stage in education. There is only one generalization about human life that has no exceptions whatever, and that is that every person who comes into the world comes into it totally ignorant and he goes out of it completely dead.

By the time the primary school gets the child the first stage of his education or "miseducation" is over. He is no longer totally ignorant. He has learned a vast number of things, of knowledge, of habits, of background, of prejudices, and they are the raw material with which you have to deal in the primary school. But nevertheless, of the things beyond that of which he still is ignorant, his first purpose is to catch up. And, however recondite may be the sociology and the psychology with which the teacher and the administrator tackle that job, at least for the pupil you have to realize this first job of catching up. When you teach him the multiplication table it is not in the least necessary to remind him that Einstein has upset the foundations of our traditions of quantity and number; and when you teach him the map it is not necessary yet for him to bother his little head with the rights or the wrongs of the processes by which most of its frontiers have been drawn.

So if we will keep the primary schools primary, then if there is any teacher in those primary schools who thinks it is within her conscience to exhort those pupils to join the Young Pioneers, let her remember that there are also probably many devout Methodists in the school who think that the eternal welfare of those pupils depends upon their conversion to salvation. But the very law prohibits her from making the school the place for that evangelization.

I wouldn't have any law to prohibit her from making it an evangelism for communism, because I know who would administer it, but I would have the sort of teachers who wouldn't

do it and the sort of administrators who would know how tactfully to see to it that the school was conducted intelligently and sensibly.

When you go on to the secondary schools you have passed out of childhood into the great new birth of adolescence. You have an upspringing of intellectual growth. Now is the time when students should begin to be trained in the critical attitude. If there are two sides of a question, they should know that there are two sides. They should make a beginning toward scientific criticism and toward a knowledge of the fact that there is controversy. You certainly cannot and should not keep controversial questions out of the secondary schools. But there, too, we have to reckon with the psychology of adolescence. Adolescence is not merely an increase in knowledge and intelligence and ability to think. Adolescence is a new period in the emotions. Adolescence is the time when loyalties are crystallized. It is, for instance, the period in which people begin to fall in love. As you all know by observation, and I hope most of you by experience, falling in love is a super-rational process, but a very vital one, and the period at which it begins to take place is also the period in which other great and deep loyalties begin to be fixed.

We cannot ignore this essential fact at the secondary period in our schools, and I should not be ashamed to prefer that those loyalties in American schools should be loyalties to America; that they should be loyalties, not to wooden and ignorant traditions of that America some of our censors wish to be unchanged forever, but that they should be emotional loyalties to the institutions that they find around them, and a still greater emotional loyalty to make those institutions better; that they should be loyalties to the country they live in, that they should learn an attitude of social usefulness in the community in which they work. I think it would be a neglect of the very psychology of adolescence if we ignored all this and assumed a cold and unemotional attitude of impartiality as between loyalty to America and revolution against it.

But there, too, I should leave the administration of that

problem to educators. If I have failed to define it in general terms, you always know what is right in a specific instance. The evil of it is when either a radical fanaticism in the school destroys the sense of the fitness of things, or when a fascist dictatorship that doesn't yet know it is fascist attempts from outside to impose conformity upon the schools, with the determination that what the powers that be think once was (though it probably never was) shall exist forever and with the delusion that the whole purpose of schools is to turn out docile and goose-stepping conformists to the existing order. One need not go to either of those extremes.

Finally, we come to the university which is the beginning of the larger learning and to the graduate school which is the induction into original scholarship, and there, necessarily, there are no limits to the subjects of investigation. There is no thing that cannot be discussed; there is no point of view that need not be opened up; and if there is one professor of economics or sociology who has a doctrine that he thinks is right, let him say so, and in the next room let there be another one who says the other thing. Let there be that atmosphere of democratic freedom of thought which is the beginning of broader education, the beginning of competency to function for leadership in a democracy. That, I think, one need not emphasize to you, and I think it is a very remarkable thing how little interference with it has succeeded in getting into American universities, especially when we consider the authoritarian form of their organization.

The American university is not, as many European universities are, simply a company of scholars. The American university is organized like a great corporation. It has a board of directors in its regents or in its trustees. It has a general manager in its president. It has stockholders in its taxpayers or its donors. It has its employees. The professor is legally and theoretically a hired man. It has its customers, and sometimes paying, and high-paying, customers in its students. It is organized exactly like an American business corporation, and its regents or trustees are nearly always persons who

themselves are members of boards of directors of business corporations. It seems almost like a miracle when we realize how far they have refrained from running these universities the way they run their factories or their newspapers.

I have had, myself, a very long experience with this part of university administration. For forty-seven years, the first twenty-two of them second-hand, in the person of my uncle of the same name, who was my closest personal and business associate, and then for twenty-five more as a regent myself, I have been in intimate, constant contact with the affairs of the Board of Regents of the University which has now the largest resident enrollment in the United States. Up to 1898 there was at times regent politics in the university, but it was ordinary personal and political intrigue to get your friends in, and was not in any sense a coercion of freedom of teaching. Then, in 1898, with the coming of Benjamin Ide Wheeler (and that is now thirty-nine years ago), it became a contractual obligation of the members of that Board of Regents that all these matters should be in the hands of the president, and in those whole thirty-nine years I remember but one exception, and that was in 1918, during the war hysteria, when a gross injustice was done to one of the professors in the German Department. I was in the hospital at the time and was not able to make the protest that I otherwise would have done.

I think that is to an astonishing extent, though of course not completely, the record of the major governing bodies of the major universities of the United States. Our Board of Regents in California, however, is fortunately exempt from political pressure. I remember a Canadian friend once describing it as the House of Lords and I said, "Yes, and in my case it is hereditary." We serve for sixteen years and are practically always reappointed. I began in 1912 and my present term runs out in 1952. And our authority is constitutional. If there is any politics there, we put it there; nobody else can put it on us.

Some of you have had to deal with boards not so fortunate as that, but nevertheless I think that the record of American

universities as against political pressure, as against group pressure, and as against the very structure of their own organization which is exactly like that of a corporation and could be but is not run like it, is remarkably good as to the full recognition of full academic freedom.

Now these problems come and sometimes they are very acute; sometimes they are sharply political; sometimes they get into the lower schools, less often into the universities, but there is to my mind one sufficient remedy for them. That is to leave them to you—to leave them to educators. Educators aren't perfect. In an imperfect world you will never have a perfect university or a perfect school system run by perfect men, and if it is left to educators they will make plenty of blunders. But if left to politicians, they will be wrong all the time, even when by accident they happen to be right.

The Relation of Education to Governmental Administration

By LEON C. MARSHALL

THERE are two background matters of very considerable importance which I shall not take time to discuss, merely alluding to them in order that they may be in our minds. The first is this: We in this country have not yet come fully to appreciate the enormous extent of administration and of administrative law that has descended upon us within the last fifty years—indeed within the last generation. It is literally true that today matters flowing from administrative law occupy more of your attention and mine, have a greater impact upon your life and mine, than is true of matters flowing from any and all other forms of our law. There is not one of us here in this room today who has not already this morning experienced at least a dozen, and more likely one hundred, illustrations of the practical operation of administration and administrative law.

Another matter of great significance to which I merely refer is that of the quality of the persons who go into this administrative work. It was just fifty years ago, back in 1887, that Woodrow Wilson, writing in the *Political Science Quarterly*, pointed out that we were headed towards a regime of emphasis upon administration; and that unless we developed some scheme of introducing into our governmental work persons of real quality and of real background, we were also headed toward a perilous situation. That was fifty years ago, and I fear we have not measured up to either our opportunities or our responsibilities.

What are some of these fundamental matters of quality of personnel? I think you will pardon if I make reference to a personal experience. Within the last few weeks I have heard about a dozen responsible officials, high in governmental

circles, discuss the difficulties which they confront. Without exception, these officials cited two difficulties which are in the forefront of their thinking and which must be solved if we are to have even moderately satisfactory governmental administration. Their language was most academic, for they stressed upon one hand the need of integration, and upon the other hand the need of specialization. One outstanding difficulty they are having in the administration of their departments is that they are not able to secure the services of persons who see society in its wholeness, who have a sufficient appreciation of the integration of this human living of ours. Lacking this integrated view, their detailed, specialized work is often of no particular use because it does not fit in with a big over-all operative pattern. Since they do not see as a whole or in its wholeness this society that they are attempting to serve, they lack sense of direction and they are unable to plan constructive work.

The other outstanding difficulty is that these not-well-integrated persons are not-well-specialized persons. At first hearing, this seems a contradictory statement, but of course it is not. As one of these officials pointed out, these are days when our administration is not static but dynamic—days when new problems are continually arising for the solution of which techniques have not yet been developed. In other words, an insistent need of the day is that of carrying out specializations far beyond limits of which we have yet dreamed.

Well, there we are! That is the old rock on which our thinking seems always to split in a discussion of this sort. Upon the one hand, all of us recognize that we must provide for this integration. We are continually making verbal noises to the general import that no one can properly serve this society of ours without seeing it as a whole—and our practices are a good deal different from our verbalizations in such matters. So, also, we are continually making verbal noises to the general import that we must increase our specializations—and here again our practice commonly falls short of our preaching. We vacillate from one extreme to the other and

largely fritter away our energies in the self-deceptive activities of the vacillation.

This, I think, we shall continue to do so long as we continue to suppose that integration and specialization are two separate, distinct, and antagonistic things. They are, of course, merely two aspects of one identical thing. As has been well said in one of the recent periodicals, the famous either/or Greek mind seems to have possession of us in our educational work. We seem not to realize that along with the great desirability of the either/or mind there is an equal desirability of having the both/and mind.

But is it really true that integration and specialization (I prefer the word "morcellement") are not distinct entities, but rather are interacting elements of a larger configuration? Suppose that, instead of making a direct answer to this question, I make a roundabout answer.

I picked up yesterday from my desk some material that has been there for a few days, and it is so interesting and it has appeared so little in public print that you will not be averse, I think, to my making use of it. It describes an experiment that has been conducted in another community with respect to this very matter of which we are speaking.

It seems that somewhere near where Gregor Mendel did his great work there is a community largely shut off from contact with the rest of the world. I am not quite sure how the name would be pronounced; it is spelled Laicos Ecneics. There was in this little isolated community a group of competent persons who had been interested in the social sciences, and when Mendel's great work was rediscovered in 1900, this group of social scientists began to wonder whether in this work in genetics and in rapidly unfolding psychology there might not be lessons for the social sciences. They decided to follow intensively the work in the new biology and psychology and to think largely in terms of these sciences when engaged in their major task of conditioning youth in the social sciences.

I shall try to represent what happened as accurately as I can in the short time that I have available. It runs something

like this. As time went on during the last thirty years, this group came to the conclusion that in biology and psychology they saw several very fundamental matters having to do with the conditioning of youth. I will list the matters that seemed to them fundamental.

In the first place, they saw that, in great contrast with the older ideas in the social sciences, biology was showing that human beings have a tremendous plasticity, a perfectly fabulous plasticity. The cerebral cortex is so built that the opportunity or chance for variable response is—to quote the language of the biologist, Herrick—greater in magnitude than the number of atoms in the entire solar system. So great is the plasticity in the neural make-up of this strange human being!

They drew from this the conclusion that, without accepting the views of the more extreme of the behaviorist school, they were justified in believing that there was little operative limit to what could be done in the conditioning of the youth with whom they were dealing. The brain cells could take care of the situation.

In the second place, they saw that, while such a term as "stimulus-response" has its uses as a tool of thought, the thing which is characteristic of actual living is that the *human being develops stimulus patterns of enormous reach and complexity*. The normal individual does not ordinarily react to some single stimulus; rather, as a typical matter, great ranges of stimuli are brought together by the nervous system and the individual's response is in terms of these great interacting ranges. Human mental plasticity extends to the ability to form vast configurations.

The two items I have thus far discussed are connected with the enormous plasticity of the human being. But our social scientists in this isolated community found other things in the biological situation that fascinated them. They found, thirdly, that along with (not in contrast with) the fabulous plasticity of the neural system of this strange biped, there is an equally fabulous integration. Through the coordination of the neural

system and the coordination of the glandular system, and through the fact that in every cell of the body there is a complete complement of the genes, those physical, chemical units that do so much to establish personality—through these and other coordinating factors—there is a tremendous biological integration of human beings.

And they found, fourthly, that over and above this enormous biological integration there is an equally striking psychological integration. From the very first, the new-born babe—this plastic babe, so far as his biological characteristics are concerned—is powerfully conditioned by the members of the family and later by other groups with whom he comes into contact. The consequence is that a "way-of-life," an integration of personality, is soon established. All later conditioning must be in terms of this way of life, must make peace with it, must be a new integration. Accordingly, human beings, highly plastic and highly specialized, are also always in process of becoming integrated, of rising to ever new integrations.

Such were the meanings that this interesting group of social scientists in Laicos Ecneics saw in the biological-psychological scientific developments of the last generation. From these meanings they drew some major conclusions, and again I will try to report as accurately as I can their conclusions. One conclusion is that, despite all the variations there are among us as individuals, each of us has an essential oneness, an operative wholeness of the individual personality. It follows that since groups are like-minded individuals operating together, there tends to be an operative oneness in groups as well. Groups have integration or oneness as truly as do individuals, and for the same fundamental reasons.

They drew another conclusion which was equally interesting. As far as anthropologists and biologists know, man has had an unchanging gross biological structure through tens of thousands of years. If that is true, said they, the individual personalities and the groups of all times have had within themselves a high degree of integration. With a relatively unchanging biological structure and a relatively unchanging

Mother Nature, it would be strange if there were not in all cultures, in all times, in all places, certain persistent underlying patterns or processes or problems that had been common to all these groups. Furthermore, since all groups, whether large or small, are made up of individuals, it would be true that even in our face-to-face or personal groups these underlying patterns will be manifested. This being true, the youths whom these scientists were conditioning would have vividly in their experiential background the basic processes of all group living. If this experiential background were made a conscious possession of youth, understanding of the operations of all groups would be expedited and made more penetrating.

Such were their major conclusions. Let me now turn to a hasty examination of the program that was adopted as a result of these conclusions. I can, of course, deal with only a few of the major aspects of that program.

First of all, they decided that the school must take on a larger share of the conditioning of youth to effective participation in social living. The conditioning exercised by the family would not suffice. In an earlier static society conditioning for "effective" group living could be left largely to the family because social change was at such a slow rate that it was entirely feasible for the individual, in the normal process of living in face-to-face groups, to achieve an integrated understanding of the wholeness of that society. Not today. Today, more change occurs in a single year than in earlier societies occurred in a century. More change occurred in the last century of our living than occurred in the previous ten thousand years of human history. In such a regime of rapid change, it is simply unthinkable that the conditioning of youth should be primarily a conditioning in customary ways. There must be planned thought-through conditioning which looks toward participation in a rapidly evolving society. The obvious agency for this task is the school.

But the social scientists in Laicos Ecneics did not stop with a mere gesture toward the school. They provided that the school's conditioning should be exercised not through a

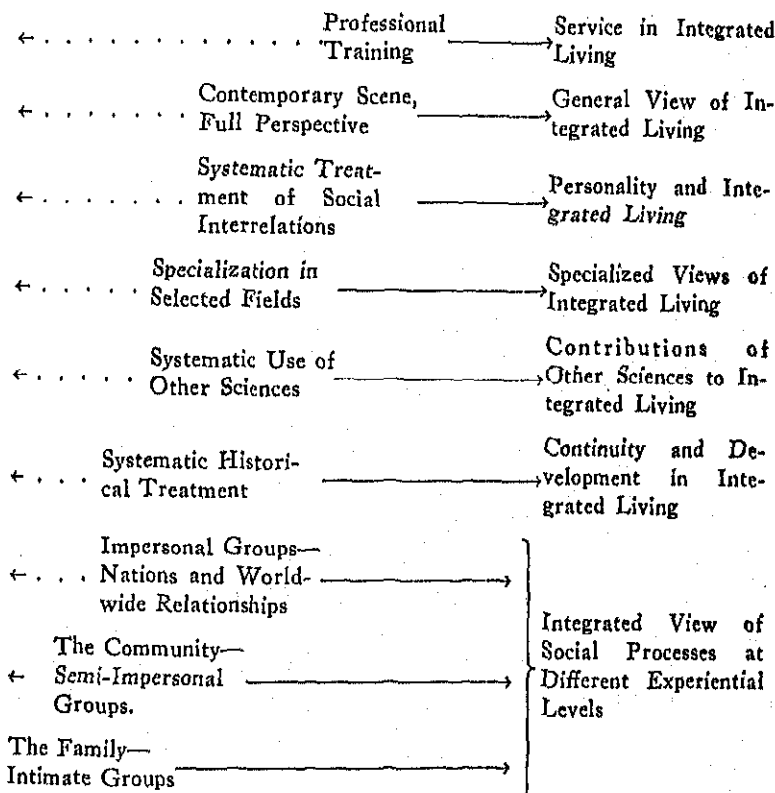
mélange of this-and-that but through *an integrated presentation of group living as a whole*. At the very outset of the school's work steps were taken to condition the pupils by making them aware of those great patterns or processes that have been true of all groups, of all cultures, of all places, of all times. Such a "configuration," to draw upon the terminology of the Gestalt psychology, would thereafter guide study and activities.

Having started the social-study work of the school on this integrated basis, these pioneers next proceeded to build all the later work on this foundation. They did not stop with halfway measures. They arranged for what they term "a progressive maturity of conditioning in the oneness of social living" which reaches through the elementary school, the intermediate school, the high school, the college, and up into the professional work. In other words (and here there is sharp application to the topic of our own discussion), the detailed specialization of the professional work was done with such a background of stimulus patterns, with such an understanding of society as a whole, that the seeming conflict between morcellement and integration disappeared. Odd as it sounds, every step toward greater morcellement was also a step toward a more completely understood integration! When we think it over, we must admit they are correct. The biologists and psychologists seem to have established that much of our thinking is in terms of great patterns. If one of those patterns is an integrated understanding of our society, professional specialization to serve that society will thereafter be done in perspective.

I have tried in the accompanying diagram, to translate their general plan of organization of formal schooling into terms with which we in America are familiar. Reading from the bottom up, the chart indicates levels of maturity of presentation—all resting on the foundational level of an integrated view of the basic processes in operation in all groups. The left side of the chart may be taken to mean the beginning of formal schooling, and movement toward the right means movement through the schools to college and professional

work. Only at the lowest level of the chart is a systematic presentation at the beginning of schooling indicated, but the dotted lines indicate opportunities to lay foundation stones for the later systematic presentations. The solid lines indicate the opportunity for further work along any route that has been systematically opened up. The levels are not separate and distinct. Each level rests on all that may be below it; and all levels are interwoven because all of them are handled in the perspective of the substantial oneness of human living.

PROGRESSION IN THE USE OF AN INTEGRATED VIEW OF
PROCESSES OF HUMAN LIVING IN TEACHING THE
SOCIAL SCIENCES



Their way of stating the enduring processes that are found in all cultures of all times (with, of course, almost infinite vari-

ation of details and techniques) is this: (1) Adjustment with nature, including learning to control nature, adjustment of population, and economic organization; (2) formation, maintenance and governance of groups, the elements of social structure; (3) development of standards and securing adherence to them; (4) building up and transmitting culture; (5) biological continuance and conservation of the race; (6) molding personality. These processes are interacting and interwoven; they are points of view of an integrated whole—human group living.

Such is a greatly abbreviated account of the theoretical background and the operative organization adopted by the social scientists of Laicos Ecneics in the preparation of youth for governmental service, or for other professional activities in the general field of the social sciences.

The question naturally arises: What have been the consequences of this experiment? Of course, the experiment is too new for us to enumerate consequences with complete confidence, but here seem to be the consequences up to the present time:

First, there has been an enormous quickening of the educational process. The students, both the normal child and the one with the high I.Q., go through the educational system much more rapidly than formerly.

Second, there has been, in addition, an acceleration of maturity. Young pupils discuss problems with a maturity, with a sense of perspective and a view of society in its wholeness, that are quite lacking in this country.

Third, they find no antagonism whatever between integration and specialization. They find that these are not two separate and distinct things, but merely two points of view of one and the same thing—in this case, a comprehensive understanding of human group living in its oneness or wholeness. Accordingly, their government servants have a sense of direction which becomes more and more effective as their specialization increases—a matter difficult for the either/or mind to understand.

Fourth, they are at the present time (through a regime of adult education) equipping the family to play a more effective role in preparing youngsters for the conditioning to be exercised by the school. They may be too hopeful; but they anticipate securing from this step consequences quite as revolutionary as those of their school reorganization.

It seems to me that this story has some very distinct lessons for us. Clearly, we human beings do have an enormous power of plasticity and an enormous power of integration. Those are not two powers; we are not first plastic and then integrated. We are at one and the same time integrated, plastic personalities. Our biological powers amply permit us to see social living in its wholeness, if only we are conditioned thus to see it. This foreign group of social scientists has done well to build their educational program on this fact.

Furthermore, they have pointed out a simple, practicable way of formulating their program. If a small number of basic, persistent, patterns or processes, or what you will, of human living are found in all cultures; and if these processes are in the experiential background of even a young child in his face-to-face groups; then, surely the utilization of these processes (whether in explicit or implicit fashion) in the conditioning of youth has possibilities reaching far beyond those of the techniques which we are using.

We have gone far in physical engineering; we are in a period of modest achievement in biological engineering. With our specialization in the social sciences set in a perspective of the oneness of social living, we could look forward with some confidence to an era of social engineering. In such an era, governmental administration would be handled by persons who not only see society in its wholeness, but have also a high power of specialization. That is precisely what we need in governmental administration, and an educational system that will confer this sort of conditioning upon our future governmental administrators is the system that we desire. That is the relation of education to governmental administration which we covet.

The Deeper Significance of the Youth Problem

By GEORGE JOHNSON

WHEN we are seeking for a remedy for any social ill it is of vital importance that we distinguish very clearly between causes and symptoms. The social disorders that are most apparent, and of which as a consequence we are most conscious, more often than not are the suppurations of foul ulcers hidden away in the depths of the body politic, and if we content ourselves with applying poultices, we leave the fundamental malady unaffected. Eventually its virulence will break forth in another if not in the same form, or it may well be that our efforts will only serve to aggravate the fundamental evil and make it more difficult to achieve a real cure.

The youth problem is a case in point. That these are critical days for young people no one will deny. The facts in the case are too apparent to need elaboration. Phrases like "youth adrift," "youth at the crossroads," "baffled youth," "lost generation," are something more than rhetorical flourishes. As a matter of fact, they come very close to being realistic characterizations of things as they are. It is not necessary to marshal here facts and figures in substantiation of this statement. They are known to all who have the interests of young people and the future of the nation at heart. That there is in fact a youth problem in this country no one can gainsay. However, there may be a very decided difference of opinion when it comes to defining the essence of that problem.

As I see it, the youth problem is only one phase or perhaps a symptom of a problem that is deeper and more fundamental. The dislocation of youth is the result of other dislocations. Its cause must be sought in the workings of the kind of social order that we have allowed to develop in this country. As a

consequence, any plan to come to the aid of young people which is based on things as they are will only accentuate the difficulty and is foredoomed to failure.

Society exists for the individual and not the individual for society. The most sacred thing in all the world is human personality. The all important thing is its development and perfection. While the individual does not exist for society, it is nevertheless true that only in and through society can he attain his full stature and achieve his destiny. We have rights and prerogatives that are ours by nature and which we do not derive from the group. Yet it is in and through the group that we exercise them unto self-development.

Whenever the group is so constituted that it interferes with the natural rights and prerogatives of the individual, the results are bound to be tragic. When social conditions are such that human beings can no longer live as human beings and are deprived of opportunities that are essential for human development, palliatives and half measures simply will not do. What is required is a fundamental change. Normal living is impossible in an abnormal society. So deeply indoctrinated have we become in this modern world with the theory of progress that we take it for granted that this is the best to date of all possible worlds. We have great faith in the future because we have been taught to believe that the future is always better than the past and that tomorrow will outstrip today even as today outstrips yesterday. Change, we are confident, is always for the better, and we regard with contempt those who refuse to adjust themselves to it and attempt to stand in its way. It is precisely this habit of blind optimism that has caused most of us to be so uncritical of modern economic and industrial developments and so ready to burn incense on the altar of forces that must eventually make for individual and social ruin.

Surely a social order is abnormal that deprives individuals of the protection of such fundamental institutions as home and religion and employment and private property. Surely a social order is abnormal whose destiny is in the hands of an

oligarchy that through the control of wealth controls trade and commerce and all of the normal processes of human living. Surely a social order is abnormal that does not guarantee to individual men and women that basic social security without which life must be lived under lowering clouds of fear and worry and hopelessness. Surely that social order is abnormal which meets young people on the threshold of their maturity with the announcement, be it ever so apologetic, "There is no room in the inn."

During the dark days of the depression there were evidences of a growing awareness of this fact. Now that times are getting better, we are in grave danger of losing sight of it. Optimism is, of course, an outstanding American characteristic and our history as a nation bears evidence to our eagerness to look for the silver lining in every cloud. Today's prosperity makes us forget yesterday's adversity. When things get better we are no longer interested in the question of how they got worse.

The wheels of industry have been given another spin. Once more smoke pours from factory chimneys, car loadings increase, construction and building booms, wages and dividends increase, we buy new cars and new radios and settle down to enjoy another era of plenty. This time we try to make ourselves believe it will be perennial.

Yet nothing has been changed fundamentally. A few reforms here and there have not affected the essential character of the society in which we live. We still have our army of unemployed; the wealth of the nation is still in the control of the few. Labor has made some slight gains, but wage increase is about to be swallowed up by increase in prices. And all of the while we have done next to nothing about the youth problem.

I wonder when all is said and done if the great crime of modern society against youth is not this: that it deprives it of an opportunity of exercising responsibility. The conditions which lengthen the period of dependency for the young prevent them from coming to grips with reality in their formative

years, and they come to adult estate without ever actually participating in the business of living. It is by shouldering responsibility that we develop our characters, and if betimes we do not put away the things of a child, we can hope to become little better than children of a larger growth.

Standing on the side-lines and watching the game of life from the vantage point of a spectator will never develop the skill and the power that are required to play the game. No form of make-believe can substitute for actual living. The various types of socialized activities that we have introduced into our schools for the purpose of giving young people some notion of what real life is all about have some value, to be sure, but they pale into insignificance in comparison with actual participation in the life of society. When it comes to forming and stabilizing character, their potency is nil as compared with the effect of carrying one's own burden and pulling one's own load. It is only in the degree that one is conscious of the fact that he belongs, that something real and actual is dependent upon him, that he develops anything like a true sense of responsibility and life takes on meaning.

We frequently complain of a lack of serious purpose on the part of our young people. We are shocked occasionally by their lackadaisical ways and taken aback when they give voice to what they consider their rights. Our temptation is to deliver them a homily on the subject of rights being the correlate of duties and tell them that the important thing is to give and not receive. Yet we have stood by and watched economic and industrial forces create a situation in which there were fewer and fewer duties for young people to perform and in which their opportunities for giving were steadily decreasing.

After all, human beings do have intelligence and will. We are not mere cogs in some great machine or blind pawns in the hand of some overmastering fate. We can, of course, content ourselves with following in the wake of a machine civilization and picking up the debris, which, of course, will solve no problem. What is really required of us is that we take stock of the whole social situation, subject it to the cold scrutiny of

reason and common sense, and on the basis of a sound philosophy of human living plan a social order which will not do violence to human nature.

May I be permitted the liberty of a quotation? It is from the Encyclical of Pope Pius XI called "Forty Years After."

Then only will the economic and social order be soundly established and attain its ends, when it offers, to all and to each, all those goods which the wealth and resources of nature, technical science, and the corporate organization of social affairs can give. These goods should be sufficient to supply all necessities and reasonable comforts, and to uplift men to that higher standard of life which, provided it be used with prudence, is not only not a hindrance but is of singular help to virtue.

If youth is to have a sense of responsibility, there must be rooted in every young heart a deep consciousness of a meaning and purpose to life. Sooner or later every young person is bound to ask himself the question: "Why am I alive; what is the purpose of my being on earth?" That question demands an adequate answer, and no adequate answer is possible in anything short of fundamental terms. Mere citizenship is no answer, nor economic competence nor science nor pleasure nor self-assertion. One does not have to be a philosopher or learned savant to sense the fact that life cannot be explained merely in terms of life. There is not enough to life, no matter how rich, to satisfy the deeper yearnings of the soul, and for most people living is not very rich. The Catholic child is told the answer to that question in these words of the Catechism: "I am on this earth to know God, and to love Him, and to find happiness and salvation in doing His holy will." Of course, this is a religious answer, but in the final analysis it is religion alone that holds the key to the riddle of human existence.

It is a rather frightening commentary on the trend of the times here in this country that it almost amounts to a breach of good form to mention religion when matters of human welfare are under discussion. When it is mentioned it is

generally in a very apologetic tone and with such qualifications as to deny that religion is meant at all. Personally, I do not believe that this is because religion is not respected by the American people. I have a feeling that the average intelligent man or woman has deep religious sensibilities, but for fear of evoking acrimonious controversy he does not express them. This is particularly true in educational circles. Because of sectarian differences, a neutral attitude toward religion was adopted by tax-supported education in this country one hundred years ago. It was a compromise, and, like all compromises, did not express any fundamental convictions. The result has been a kind of tacit agreement that, whenever we get together to discuss the problems of education, religion must not be mentioned.

Yet religion is the most fundamental thing in human life. In the long run, as Hilaire Belloc has pointed out, every human controversy is fundamentally theological. Each and every one of us has a God that he worships and is conscious in some manner of the fact that he is subject to some Higher Power. A man, unfortunately, may not go to church; he may not subscribe openly to any religious communion, nor be identified publicly with any creed; yet, if he has any mind at all, he knows that there is a Reality beyond all other realities and a Being who is the source of all other being. Always haunting us is the realization that we do not belong to ourselves.

It is highest time, as far as the welfare of our young people is concerned, that we bring our religion out into the open and re-establish it in its proper and traditional place in American life. And by religion I mean religion. I do not mean some vague and indefinite spiritual values. I do not mean some indefinable aspiration for something higher and better. I do not mean sentimentality or social service. I mean acceptance of the fact of creaturehood. I mean belief in a personal God, who made me, who preserves me in existence, whose will is the rule of my life, and union with whom is my ultimate destiny. I mean a religion that is the basis of a true sense of responsibility, born of the fact that I am convinced that I

will be held answerable for my every thought, word, deed, and omission.

Religion in this sense is not something apart from life. It is of the very warp and woof of daily existence. It enters into every sphere of human thought and action. It is the ultimate basis for every judgment and determination. Again I quote Pope Pius XI:

How can any contract be maintained, and what value can any treaty have, in which every guarantee of conscience is lacking? And how can there be talk of guarantees of conscience when all faith in God and all fear of God have vanished? Take away this basis, and with it all moral law falls, and there is no remedy left to stop the gradual but inevitable destruction of peoples, families, the state, civilization itself.

Because they have always been firmly convinced of this truth, the Catholics of the United States have been ready to make every sacrifice to preserve for their children their religious inheritance. They have striven to educate their children according to the principles and in the spirit of the faith which they believe. There is a definite Catholic philosophy of life which is derived from what Catholics believe concerning God and Jesus Christ whom He has sent. This philosophy embraces every phase of living and is not confined to those things which are theological. Christ for the Catholic is a plan of action, a way of living, and the perfection of Catholic life consists in living like Christ at all times and in all circumstances. I am not saying that Catholics achieve this ideal. Unfortunately, too often they do not. But the ideal is there none the less, and it rests on their conscience to approximate it.

The Church has not at her disposal the means to do all that she realizes should be done for Catholic youth. Only a small percentage of Catholic boys and girls are in Catholic secondary schools. Ways and means of bringing religious instruction and care to those who are not in Catholic schools are being experimented with the country over. In one diocese after another Catholic youth organizations are being formed to bring the influence of Christ's teaching into the lives of

young people by means of recreation, by means of study clubs, by means, above all, of spiritual exercises of one kind or other. The odds are very great and frequently overwhelming, but the Church refuses to be dismayed, for she knows full well that it is only on the basis of religion and man's sense of responsibility to God, his Creator, that the institutions of democracy can be preserved. For, after all, democratic institutions rest on individual integrity, and the guarantee of individual integrity is a sense of responsibility to God, our Creator.

May I reiterate what I said in the beginning? The youth problem, as I envisage it, is not something apart, something that stands alone. It is but one aspect of a larger problem and a symptom of a deeper evil. I do not believe that we can solve it by taking things as they are for granted and attempting to fit young people into the pattern of contemporary circumstances. We cannot solve it by the mere process of keeping them in school longer, or even finding for them opportunities for gainful employment. We cannot solve it by helping them develop a program of leisure time activities. All and each of these approaches has its value, but only if at the same time we address ourselves to the more vital and consequently difficult task of rebuilding the social order in terms of reason and justice. The normal processes of human living must be restored and all those factors and forces eliminated which degrade the dignity of human nature and interfere with the proper development of human personality.

Our generation will not live long enough to make any more than a beginning of this work. It is to youth, the youth of today and tomorrow, and many tomorrows thereafter, that we will have to look to finish what we have begun. Their fundamental equipment for this mission must be a sense of responsibility, a realization that they are working in the cause of social betterment. They must be helped to realize that they are their brothers' keepers and that their happiness will be measured in terms of what they have done to make life more abundant for others, and not in terms of what they get out of it for themselves. This realization will be born in

them, however, not as a result of listening to preachments and being bored with uplift talk. It can only be born of experience, of feeling the thrill of joy and satisfaction that comes of doing real things that contribute in a real manner to society. Whatever plans and projects we adopt in the way of attempting a solution of the problem of American youth, one element we dare not overlook. In order that youth may realize its responsibility unto God and unto fellow-man, its responsibility to enlist its vigor, its talents and its ideals under the banner of democracy and social justice, it must be permitted in its heyday to actually participate in the life of society. Responsibility is born of being held responsible.

What Is Important in Education?

By BURTON P. FOWLER

LESS than a month ago a small group of college presidents, deans, and personnel officers met in Washington under the auspices of the American Council on Education. The purpose of this conference was to discuss the fundamental principles and procedures of personnel work in colleges. The committee on general policy, consisting of men eminent in the affairs of our higher institutions, presented a report which began with this statement:

One of the basic purposes of higher education is the preservation, transmission, and enrichment of the important elements of culture—the product of scholarship, research, creative imagination, and human experience. It is the task of colleges and universities so to vitalize this and other educational purposes as to assist the student in developing to the limit of his potentialities and in making his contribution to the betterment of society. This philosophy imposes upon educational institutions the obligation to consider the student as a whole—his intellectual capacity and achievement, his emotional make-up, his physical condition, his social relationships, his vocational aptitudes and skills, his moral and religious values, his economic resources, his aesthetic appreciations.

Such a statement is a beacon light of hope in a day when the progressive developments of education during the past quarter of a century are in danger of being washed away by the tidal waves of reactionary half-truths which have suddenly appeared from quarters both expected and unexpected. The cause for this reaction is not hard to understand when we realize the insecurity that even genuine liberals have experienced as they have felt the impact of political, social, and economic change. To those looking for a straw to grasp, the good, old-fashioned values of yesterday make a strong and natural appeal. Intellectuals, like industrialists, have a strong instinct for self-preservation and turn from the bewilderment of distribution of educational wealth to the an-

chorage of old educational shibboleths in order to feel once more the good solid ground beneath their feet. To those of us who have believed that a strong tide of sensible liberalism in educational philosophy and practice was setting in, such a riptide has come as something of a shock. Today books that voice this tide of reaction approximate the status of best sellers. It is all a part of a natural if disturbing phenomenon.

A few scattered quotations from some recent publications will illustrate the point:

Mr. Frederick Winsor, the headmaster of the Middlesex School, writing in the May *Atlantic Monthly* states (1) with reference to the first six elementary grades:

The three R's, which give us the tools of everyday life, can be acquired with merely the most rudimentary processes of thought, and practically without reasoning at all. . . . The work of the first six grades of our public schools is almost wholly of such a character. Successfully to complete it demands not brains but memory and application and drill. . . . The three R's can be acquired by all children who are not feeble-minded, and no great harm is done to the gifted children by herding all in the same classes, and probably such an arrangement can continue through the sixth grade of our schools without serious injustice to anyone.

(2) With reference to the secondary school, an "extra course in the art of thinking" is recommended:

Straight through the six years the pupils will be learning not only to think but also what the greatest leaders of human thought, down through recorded history, have themselves thought. An average of twenty pages a lesson of selected classics, five periods a week for six years, would make over 20,000 pages. Taken from selected authors from Confucius to Benjamin Franklin, or even to one of the stimulating thinkers of our own time, 20,000 pages of live philosophy would provide a good liberal education in itself.

The outcome of such specialized reading will be found, according to this author, in the five qualities of moral virtue expounded by Confucius: self-respect, magnanimity, sincerity, earnestness, and benevolence.

Moral virtue and straight thinking by reading 20,000 pages during the six years after the sixth grade. How simple it is! Thinking begins at twelve!

Dr. Henry Link, in that amazing miscellany of half-truth and error entitled *The Return to Religion*, makes assertions of which the following are a sampling:

The fallacy underlying the progressive education movement is that it has not codified the forms of expression which are desirable and those which are not. It has assumed, too uncritically, that what a child wanted to express was worth encouraging. It has made a god of the principle of expression at the expense of the manner of self-expression. Consequently it has often confused self-expression with self-indulgence, dawdling, and a set of adult notions about the framework—art, dramatics, pageants, etc.—in which children should self-express themselves. It has failed to recognize sufficiently that mature self-expression and creativeness rest on the acquisition of the basic techniques of self-expression, just as the mastery of a piece of music rests on the mastery of the scales. The child compelled to practice the piano and certain exercises against his will is acquiring the a, b, c's of musical expression. The child allowed to practice as he pleases, to draw pictures as he pleases, and to follow other pursuits with a wide latitude of action, is usually wasting the time in which he might be mastering the basic routines.

The revolt against marks and grades in figures has continued for years, and has become increasingly successful. And yet the marking system is one of the few definite points at which education resembles the actual world with its systems of incentives and rewards, its mixture of justice and human fallibility. I have explained to my own children many times the similarity between this aspect of their education and their future experience. Good marks are obtained in two ways, first by doing good work and second by learning how to please the teacher—the latter is as important as the former. Vocational progress and good wages are achieved not simply by doing good work but by doing it in ways which will please the bosses.

And Dr. Hutchins' historic formulae, almost dyspeptic in the irritability with which they are expressed, which would

make learning higher by making it older, are too familiar to need re quoting here. Obviously he has little patience with the conception of education as concerning the whole man which was quoted as the opening of this paper.

A recent newspaper editorial pleads for a return to the sturdy mental disciplines that produced George Washington and John Marshall. Why not also return to the smallpox plagues, blood-letting, and false teeth of that day? We do not know, of course, what disciplines produced Washington and Marshall. I suspect, if the facts were available, that their formal education had little to do with the greatness of these men. Such wishful reminiscence is part and parcel of the little-red-schoolhouse mythology. Amazing as the idea is, even our own profession seems to deny us the progress or even change that is taken for granted in every other field of human activity.

All such appeals to return to the historic medieval quadrivium of grammar, rhetoric, logic, and mathematics rest upon the basis that education can be had from the printed pages of books of ancient culture; that other forms of experience are not only unrelated but even detrimental to scholarly attainment. There is no hint that these ancient cultures were themselves the product of varied forms of experience or that they, the Greek especially, laid greater emphasis upon *seeing*, *hearing*, and *doing* than any plan of education devised before or since.

Furthermore, there is implicit in all such over-simplifications of the educational process the idea that learning can be uniform. We seem to have failed even after twenty years of research to establish the basic fact of individual differences.

To quote Dr. Hutchins:

Education should be everywhere the same. I do not overlook the possibilities of differences in organizations, in administrations, in local habits and customs. These are details. I suggest that the heart of any course of study designed for the whole people will be, if education is rightly understood, the same at any time, in any place, under any political, social, or economic conditions.

In other words, John's absorption with mathematics; Mary's rare gift for aesthetic appreciation and expression; Tom's poetic insight into human motives, conditioned by physical frailty and emotional instability; Dick's explosive mixture of shrewd logic and rugged selfishness; Isaac's rich endowment of eloquent speech, embittered by racial isolation; Henry's gift of lyric expression and his black skin—are all these kinds of basic differences in quality of mind and make-up mere details which are even of less consequence than organization and administration, and will they all ultimately be refined in the melting pot of the quadrivium?

Curiously enough, some of the proponents of this revival of the older learning seem themselves lacking in the Confucian virtue of "magnanimity" in the intolerance displayed toward the "newer learning"; they manifest a lack of other Confucian virtues of "earnestness" and "sincerity" in presenting an even moderately fair interpretation of what is being attempted in certain applications of the newer learning which to many of us seem rich in their promise of straighter thinking and more virtuous morals.

In no other profession or business except our own is research subject to ridicule. Let a courageous educator with unconventional ideas launch an experimental program and he is likely to be laughed out of court before his first year is completed. In the field of science and industry no idea is too preposterous to be turned over to research; in education one faces the scorn of his colleagues if he even suggests a radical departure from conventional practice. Educational experimentation furnishes much of the humor for the speeches and writings of our educational statesmen. Possibly some day we may discover some of the grim humor in our *historic* educational procedures.

In the face, then, of a rising tide of reaction, what are some of the promising developments which, if they can be lifted out of the realm of humor and wise-cracking and subjected to critical examination, may point to a path out of the wilderness?

The clue to one of these trends may be taken from the

statement of the conference on personnel work already referred to, that is, the responsibility of educational institutions, including teachers and professors, to consider the student as a whole, not merely his *mind* but his *feelings* as well. In this concept lies one of the most fundamental differences in point of view between the old school and the new—a difference in the way each regards the powerful factor of the *compulsion of purposes*.

Here, for example, is a school or a college, rich in resources. It possesses faculty, buildings, libraries, and laboratories. It is equipped to produce scholarly and socially enlightened graduates. Why does it more often than not fail to do so? What is actually the compelling purpose of the institution as revealed in student opinion? Is it the active curiosity of alert minds? Is it the desire to develop a working social philosophy, a better way of living, an unquenchable desire for ideas and meanings? Or does campus chatter center around the eccentricities of professors and the extent to which they can be out-manuevered, the accumulation of courses and credits, the fear of failing grades, the elasticity of cut-systems, the glitter of honor points, the shining goals of diplomas and degrees?

One is reminded of Lincoln Steffens' observation that he went to college to have his questions answered, but to his astonishment he learned when he got there that he was not supposed to have any, that only the professors had questions.

On the other hand, there are also a few institutions, still pathetically few, including both schools and colleges, with a different point of view, that have had the courage to try to obliterate or minimize these obstacles to learning, to wipe the slate fairly clean of external incentives with the result that the desire to learn and to go on learning has been refreshingly quickened. When our schools and colleges cast off the swaddling clothes that keep our students children, and allow them to grow up, just so soon will the higher and better learning become a reality. Childhood is characterized by dependence and make-believe; adulthood, by independence and facing reality. Which stage today do you think characterizes our

preparatory schools and colleges? Does the threat-psychology of an archaic system of penalties and rewards still keep our young people in a chronic state of immaturity? Do our logicians, mathematicians, and grammarians themselves think straight or even at all about this problem? New driving purposes in place of the cheap urges of immediacy must happen before we have higher instead of lower learning in American schools and colleges. I insist that no type of pure intellectual pursuit yet devised by man can evade the fundamental element of feeling. How the individual feels—his desires, interests, purposes—are inescapable elements in how he thinks. To attempt to separate the two is as futile and foolish as to ignore the other fundamental element of physical health. Sadly, too often are the brilliant intellectuals of our college campuses neurotic, cynical, maladjusted, anti-social individuals who because of their "feelings" will make slight contribution to our common culture.

The modern school, in other words, insists that an adequate philosophy of education must arise from the recognition of the essential unity of human growth; that only cultural lopsidedness can result from any conception of learning that attempts to develop the intellectual at the expense of the emotional or the physical. One must look, then, to the basic purposes, the motivating drives, for learning if he would discover its real worth.

One of the basic aspects of this whole question of traditionalism versus modernism which vexes all of us today is to be found in a clearer comprehension of the relative importance of fact-getting and problem-solving. If a boy has set up his problem so that he knows what he is trying to solve, then his 20,000 pages of reading should serve one, but only one, valuable means of gathering the data by which he will hope eventually to reach a judgment. He will also use the concrete materials of the laboratory, whether it be a laboratory of test tubes or institutions or people. He will *listen* to, *observe*, *read*, and *do* whatever he can lay hands on to arrive at the meanings which will constitute for him his final solution.

Learning then is not problem-solving instead of fact-getting but problem-solving through fact-getting; and we respectfully differ from those who argue that facts come only from books and ancient cultures instead of from the living realities that crowd in upon us. No more malicious wise-crack has come from attackers of the newer unit-organized courses in social studies than to say that we expect pupils to think without facts. They seem to overlook the equally obvious danger of gathering facts without thinking.

I am inclined to believe that vocabulary more than fundamental differences has been the cause of most of the name-calling that has enlivened educational forums in recent years. And of all the most abused, battered verbal wrecks that have resulted from this perennial combat none has fared worse than "freedom." Even the most ardent progressive no longer dares to say he believes in freedom, lest he be riddled by a volley of scornful epithets. The attack usually takes some such form as this: The progressive school lets children do as they please. They study nothing they do not want to. The progressives view freedom as something with which the child starts his education, whereas it is something with which he should end it. They deny that there is any content to education. And so on.

Such wilful misrepresentation of the principles and procedures of modern private and public schools that are unquestionably demonstrating the value of self-discipline as opposed to external authority is grossly unfair and unworthy of educational leaders whose own educational training is supposed to have given them skill in critical thinking. As a fairly close observer of educational experimentation for the past twenty years, I have yet to find a school that believes freedom does not have to be earned or that has built an opportunist curriculum on the transitory interests of children.

Modern education, like all human developments, and especially like all historic education, has its extremists and lunatics. Fair critics, however, do not condemn institutions and philosophies because of individuals, but rather by their principles,

procedures, and products. Moreover, I fear that in our own professional leadership there are men who are still judging progressive education by its early beginnings rather than by its maturer developments; by rumor, gossip, and catchwords rather than by critical analysis based on first-hand observation; by lumping schools into categories instead of judging each school by its objectives and achievements.

Personally, I can conceive of little use for schools if they are not to help pupils achieve freedom. How many schools and colleges are there that are so organized, so administered, and so taught that their students can achieve such a harmonious development of their powers, or such an adaptation to their environment that they are free in any fundamental sense of the word? That such freedom has rarely been "earned" in our schools would in itself seem to indicate an excess of adult control which has stunted the normal maturing process of youth. There is an enormous gulf between the coddled, dependent, adult-disciplined boy of eighteen and the self-reliant, straight-thinking of a boy of the same age who from birth to manhood has been helped to be master of himself. Therefore, at the risk of being trite and ridiculous, I say that freedom, the freedom that is the product of self-discipline, remains the highest, if ever receding, star of our educational objectives. Compulsion will always be needed as a crutch for the weak and helpless, but let us not spoil the normal robustness of youth by regarding the crutch as standard equipment. Dr. Neilson once remarked that the preparatory schools must give their students more rope to hang themselves. That is sound advice. A saner attitude toward self-dependence would prevent most of these academic suicides which now are merely postponed until the freshman year. Such a simple device even as abolishing study halls in the senior year of the high school would probably lessen appreciably the notorious death rate of the first year in college. When we stop ridiculing the efforts of schools and colleges to make young men and women stand on their own feet, a general advance will have been made on the upgrade to higher learning.

The special emphasis that has been laid upon expression in the various fields of the fine arts is also pertinent here. In these areas, especially, is the self-discipline evident that comes from free choice and originality. Writing an essay, painting a picture, composing, singing and playing music, participating in dramatics, modeling in clay—any or all of these may for some pupils have the disciplines and satisfactions that Euclid and Plato may have for others. To say that one kind is general education and another specialism is to deny the fundamental complexity of human nature. The Greeks, who unwittingly started all this discussion, had definite convictions on this subject.

Another fundamental and highly desirable earmark of an educated person, which cannot be left entirely if at all to the quadrivium or to the philosophy of Confucius, is the ability of human beings to work together, to cooperate if you will. I wish I could believe that reading and knowing about cooperation would advance the Kingdom of God on earth, but it has been tried for too many centuries to be very reassuring in a day that, failing skill in the art of practicing cooperation, may place our institutions of learning in precisely the same plight that exists in Germany, where the men disciplined in ancient cultures have been utterly impotent in the face of the autocratic power of an obscure house painter.

Most of us find tremendous pride and satisfaction today in those schools and colleges where young people are not only reading but doing something, either by themselves or with their teachers to abolish war, to govern themselves, to challenge unscrupulous government, to cry out against social injustice, to plan and execute artistic enterprises, or even to demand reform in the administration of the institution itself in which the needs of body, mind, and soul are not properly met and balanced.

When we can properly articulate our curricular reading with our extra-curricular practice, then we may again be able to envision the shining goal of democracy triumphant. The divorce between the classroom and the campus will be complete

unless the reflective processes of thought about government in the classroom can serve as an antidote for the increasing demand of youth for short cuts to social efficiency. When more great teachers not only teach democracy but practice it in all their relationships with their pupils and encourage the latter in turn to participate in democratic processes of the community life about them, then we shall see our youth holding on to their democratic faith, not as a shred of indoctrinated prejudice but as a consuming passion for the realization of American principles. I find it difficult to comprehend for even the third of our population that can be taught to read any scheme of education that takes them out of the realities of the living present. If in the unpredictable years that lie ahead we can be sure of few specific needs it would seem that those general ones of which I have spoken—purpose, problem-solving, self-dependence, and cooperation—will be as surely needed as the elemental physical requirements of food, clothing, and shelter.

It is not enough, however, to state one's educational objectives, nor to suggest that they require for their fulfilment a curriculum in which ideas and life-experience shall be articulated. It is also necessary to find some reasonably accurate method for determining whether these objectives have been achieved.

"Evaluation" has recently been raked out of the junk pile of cast-off catchwords. Like *freedom*, it is a good word, and we must not develop any feeling of inferiority in its use. If a physician finds it necessary to say that a child is afflicted with *pediculosis*, he will be urged in vain to substitute the antonym of "swell." He insists that *pediculosis* is what he means. We should be equally courageous in designating a process as evaluation if by that term we mean evaluation instead of measurement or some other less precise expression.

The evaluation of educational objectives as the next step beyond our more familiar use of tests and examinations to determine the degree to which skills and information have been mastered has many promising possibilities.

It is quite possible that techniques may be devised to de-

scribe the behavior of a student in such a manner that we may have a fairly complete picture of him as a developing human personality instead of a filing card of marks, degrees, and dissertations. Committees on Evaluation of the Eight-Year-Study of the Progressive Education Association have analyzed, incompletely to be sure, such a "developing human personality" as having eight fundamental aspects:

1. Thinking.
2. Interests, aims, and purposes.
3. Attitudes.
4. Study skills and work habits.
5. Social adjustment.
6. Creativeness.
7. Functional information including vocabulary.
8. A functional social philosophy.

Experimental tests in some of these areas would seem to indicate that such kinds of thinking, for example, as interpretation of data, application of principles, and the nature of proof can be described and evaluated; that other aspects of personality, such as social adjustment, sensitivity to problems, or aesthetic appreciation can be described and evaluated by collecting evidence in the form of anecdotal records, case studies, and trait analyses in such a manner that the whole personality can be described as ways of behaving. By these and other techniques which are being experimented with, we may come to have objective studies of human beings that will indicate with considerable precision the effectiveness of various educational procedures in producing the balance of body, mind, and spirit so essential to any valid conception of education.

It probably would be no exaggeration to state that desirable change in education from top to bottom would be accelerated if we could enlist the cooperation of all educational institutions in agreeing to try to define their objectives, to show what relation exists between these objectives and the curriculum, and to attempt to discover techniques for evaluating the results.

In stressing these five aspects of any forward-looking program of education—purpose, problem-solving, self-depend-

ence, cooperation, and evaluation—I am not defending progressive education, however much any movement with so unfortunate a label may need defense, but I am urging the importance of progress in education. I am protesting against the abuse and ridicule which have been heaped without discrimination upon schools which have broken with tradition, because the scoffers have too often not been critics and their prejudices have been accumulated not from first-hand observation and scientific analysis of facts, but from hearsay or the individual experience of a parent or the snap judgments of a lay writer in a popular magazine. Too many men of leadership in education today have gone little further than the eighth grade teacher, who remarked to me the other day in reply to a question as to whether she was familiar with the Eight-Year-Study, "Oh, you mean progressive education? Yes, I've heard of that system." It would be revealing to know just how many college professors and teachers there are who believe that progressive education is some kind of a new system of teaching children.

If education is to progress, then, it is my contention that the best thought of enlightened and critical minds must be pooled for such a purpose. The dialectics of the ancient Greeks doubtless has much to contribute, as have the brilliant minds of the medieval universities of Paris and England; the psychological studies of the past half century have, whether we like it or not, forever revolutionized our thinking about the way in which children develop and learn; the urgency of the social, economic, and political changes that swirl about us must be reckoned with. Education will, if it is to be a constructive force, act as a powerful catalyzer in an adventurous quest for the meanings in all these confusing and conflicting compounds. As Dr. Whitehead has written in connection with the tercentenary of Harvard:

But the ideal of the good life, which is civilization—the ideal of the university—is the discovery, the understanding, and the exposition, of the possible harmony of diverse things involving and exciting every

mode of human experience. Knowledge is a process adding content and control to the flux of experience.

Always experience! Any concept of education which takes learning out of life either for the scholar or the novice will never, I predict, flourish in the face of the challenge of American democracy. In their quest for this unity of experience, real "progressives" will continue to be concerned with all the characteristics of the individual child, with the characteristics of the society in which he lives, and, of course, with the disciplines by which mankind has striven to improve the quality of his living by lifting the quality of his thinking. They will continue to believe that a competent society can be built only out of the competence of individuals.

American Council on Education Budget, 1937-38, and Receipts and Disbursements, May 1, 1936 to April 30, 1937

RECEIPTS

	<i>Estimated Resources, May 1, 1936 to June 30, 1937 (14 months)</i>	<i>Actual Receipts, May 1, 1936 to April 30, 1937 (12 months)</i>	<i>Budget, Estimated Resources, July 1, 1937 to June 30, 1938 (12 months)</i>
Membership dues.....	\$ 19,040.00	\$ 19,558.50	\$ 19,500.00
Reimbursements for services ¹	16,000.00	16,370.60	10,500.00
Special grants.....	70,000.00	57,619.06	55,000.00
Handbook, Amer. Univ. and Coll., sale of	3,000.00	4,423.49	200.00
Division of Publications:			
All tests.....			21,000.00
The Educational Record, subscriptions and sale of reprints ²			2,000.00
Studies, and History and Activities....			50.00
Record cards and scales.....			2,300.00
Books, sale of.....			685.00
Bank interest.....		10.19	
Bank balance, April 30, 1936, Handbook..	3,130.23	3,130.23	
Bank balance, April 30, 1936, general....	11,159.91	11,159.91	
Bank balance, June 30, 1937, general (esti- mated)			10,000.00
	<u>\$122,330.14</u>	<u>\$112,271.98</u>	<u>\$121,235.00</u>

¹ Heretofore this item has consisted of the amount received for accounting services, plus the net amount from the sale of Psychological Tests. Beginning July 1, 1937, it will consist of reimbursements for accounting, telephone, and mimeographing services. A separate item for all tests has been put in the budget for 1937-38 under both "Receipts" and "Disbursements."

² All receipts from subscriptions to THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD and the sale of reprints and also from the sale of books have been formerly credited against the disbursements on the individual items, thereby reducing total expenditures. Under the budget for 1937-38 there are separate headings under "Receipts" and "Disbursements" for these items.

DISBURSEMENTS

	<i>Fiscal Year</i> <i>1936-37</i> <i>Proposed</i>	<i>Fiscal Year</i> <i>1936-37</i> <i>Expended</i>	<i>Fiscal Year</i> <i>1937-38</i> <i>Proposed</i>
Rent	\$ 6,256.00	\$ 5,342.46	\$ 5,470.00
Salary of President.....	21,000.00	18,000.00	18,000.00
Salary of President Emeritus.....	8,750.00	7,500.00	6,250.00
Salary of Vice President.....	10,500.00	9,000.00	9,000.00
Salaries of assistants.....	37,000.00	24,051.76	32,500.00
Traveling expenses, administrative.....	5,000.00	4,001.50	4,500.00
Stationery, printing, and supplies.....	1,800.00	1,485.08	1,600.00
Telephone and telegraph.....	1,400.00	943.64	1,000.00
Postage	1,233.00	1,109.66	1,100.00
Furniture and equipment.....	1,300.00	1,220.56	700.00
Committees, including Problems and Plans Committee	8,000.00	5,540.21	9,500.00
Division of Publications:			
All tests.....			13,400.00
The Educational Record and reprints..	7,500.00	7,413.67	7,100.00
Studies, and History and Activities....			1,600.00
Record cards and scales.....			2,100.00
Books			27.00
Handbook, Amer. Univ. and Coll.....	2,000.00	7,682.33	200.00
Expenses, mimeographing Survey of Or- ganization of State Depts. of Education, by M. M. Chambers.....	425.00	223.94	
Special Tax, Unemployment Compensa- tion Board.....	134.05	134.05	
Study of Primary Abilities.....	4,500.00	3,105.26	
General expense.....	2,600.00	2,130.22	2,200.00
Contingent ^a	2,932.09	1,802.85	4,988.00
	<u>\$122,330.14</u>	<u>\$100,687.19</u>	<u>\$121,235.00</u>

^a The "Contingent" item in the budget for 1936-37 amounted to \$16,552.09. During the year various transfers and direct expenditures have been authorized by the Executive Committee, leaving only a small balance in this item.

The Council at Work

THE Council at Work is a brief summary of the outstanding new projects in which the Council is interested, as well as a progress report on undertakings already launched. It is hoped that this survey will give to the members of the Council and those interested in its work a more intimate view of the Council's development. Individuals desiring further information regarding subjects mentioned in this section are invited to write to the offices of the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

The Executive Committee and the Committee on Problems and Plans in Education held their regular meetings on May 5 and 6, 1937, in Washington, D. C., before the twentieth annual meeting of the Council. The two committees met jointly on May 6 to nominate new members to the Problems and Plans Committee. The Executive Committee met again in Washington on June 18, 1937.

The Executive Committee has accepted the applications of fifteen new members since the last issue of *THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD*. The newly elected members are:

Constituent:

American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business

Associate:

Western Personnel Service

Institutional:

Beaver Country Day School, Inc., Chestnut Hill, Massachusetts
Francis W. Parker School, Chicago, Illinois
Massachusetts State College, Amherst, Massachusetts
Mount Union College, Alliance, Ohio
University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon
Ottumwa Heights College, Ottumwa, Iowa
Phillips Academy, Andover, Massachusetts
Southern Junior College, Collegedale, Tennessee
University of the City of Toledo, Toledo, Ohio
Tower Hill School, Wilmington, Delaware
Westminster College, Fulton, Missouri
Woman's College of the University of North Carolina,
Greensboro, North Carolina
Missouri State Department of Public Schools

Comparative figures for membership during the past three years are included in the President's report which is printed in this issue.

CONFERENCE ON STUDENT PERSONNEL WORK

The Council sponsored a conference of sixteen individuals interested in the development of student personnel work in Washington on April 16 and 17. This meeting grew out of the recommendations of the Committee on Review of the Testing Movement to the effect that the Council organize a Committee on Measurement and Guidance to coordinate the preparation of materials for evaluation. The Committee on Review at the same time recommended that the Council consider the desirability of undertaking a program in the field of student personnel work in order that the activities of the former Committee on Personnel Methods might be continued.

The following persons attended the conference to discuss the most effective methods of developing student personnel activities throughout the country:

Thyrza Amos, University of Pittsburgh
F. F. Bradshaw, University of North Carolina
Donald S. Bridgman, American Telephone and Telegraph Company
A. J. Brumbaugh, University of Chicago
W. H. Cowley, Ohio State University
A. B. Crawford, Yale University
Edward C. Elliott, Purdue University
Burton P. Fowler, Tower Hill School
D. H. Gardner, University of Akron
Herbert E. Hawkes, Columbia University
L. B. Hopkins, Wabash College
Frederick J. Kelly, United States Office of Education
Edwin A. Lee, National Occupational Conference
Esther Lloyd-Jones, Teachers College, Columbia University
Donald G. Paterson, University of Minnesota
C. Gilbert Wrenn, University of Minnesota

The report of the conference, *The Student Personnel Point of View*, has been published in the American Council Studies, Series I, Volume I, Number 3, and is available at ten cents a copy. This report was referred to the Problems and Plans Committee and Executive Committee on May 5 and 6, and President Zook was authorized to organize a Committee on Student Personnel Work to undertake further study in this area.

TEACHER EDUCATION

The President of the Council has called recently several conferences of individuals interested in the improvement of teacher education. After the regular sessions of the annual meeting, a small group assembled to discuss a project in this area which the Council has been considering for the past year.

At a later meeting in Chicago on May 26, 1937, representatives from a number of national organizations active in this field considered possible methods of cooperating in the improvement of teacher education. These associations included:

American Association of Teachers Colleges
Municipal Teachers College Association
National Association of Colleges and Departments of Education

National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification

National Society of College Teachers of Education
Supervisors of Student Teaching

The representatives voted to ask the President of the Council to sponsor a joint conference of delegates of associations primarily interested in the professional education of teachers in Atlantic City prior to the meeting of the American Association of School Administrators in February 1938. This conference would discuss plans for a comprehensive attack on the problems of teacher education.

EDUCATIONAL BROADCASTING

Plans for the Second National Conference on Educational Broadcasting are being developed by committees under the direction of the Vice President of the Council, C. S. Marsh, who is executive secretary of the committee of sponsoring organizations. The second conference will meet in Chicago on November 29, 30, and December 1, 1937. Carl H. Milam, secretary of the American Library Association, is chairman of the committee on local arrangements.

More than 700 persons registered for the first conference in Washington, D. C., held last December which was sponsored by eighteen national organizations. A number of additional organizations are cooperating in the second conference, detailed plans for which will be announced in the early fall.

NEW EDITIONS OF TESTS

The Committee on Measurement and Guidance at its regular meeting in New York on May 23 and 24 voted to authorize the publication of two series of the 1937 edition of the *American Council on Education Psychological Examination for College Freshmen*. The first series will be the regular hand-scored edition which has been published in past years; the second series will be published for machine scoring with the International Test Scoring Machine. This latter series

has been developed because many large state programs will use the new machines for the first time this fall. Both series will be ready for shipment on August 15 and will sell at seven dollars a hundred.

At the same time, the committee decided to postpone the publication of L. L. Thurstone's new test, "American Council on Education Primary Abilities Test," until January 1938, when a machine-scored edition will be available.

Ben D. Wood, director of the Cooperative Test Service, in his annual report advised the committee that there had been a significant increase in the number of cooperating institutions in the sophomore testing program. He reported that the Cooperative Test Service had distributed 247,000 tests in April of this year and 194,000 in May.

EUROPEAN CONFERENCES

President George F. Zook will sail for Europe on June 26 where he will officially represent the United States and the Council at a number of international meetings. He will take part in the following conferences:

- Second General Conference of National Committees on Intellectual Cooperation, Paris
- Nineteenth Session, International Committee on Intellectual Cooperation, Paris
- Experts Commission on "Overcrowding" and Graduate Unemployment, called by International Student Service, Paris
- Sixth International Conference on Public Instruction, Geneva
- Conference on Secondary Education, Paris
- Conference of Directors of Higher Education, Paris
- Conference on Primary and Popular Education, Paris

He will return to the United States early in September.

CONFERENCES AND MEETINGS

The Council has been represented by its administrative officers at the following meetings since April 1937:

- American Association for Adult Education, Sky Top Lodge, Pennsylvania

Centennial of Knox College, Galesburg, Illinois

Centennial of the University of Louisville, Louisville, Kentucky

Conference on Graduate Instruction of the United States Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association, Chicago, Illinois

Institute for Education by Radio, Columbus, Ohio

National Education Association 1938 Yearbook Commission, Asheville, North Carolina

North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Chicago, Illinois

President Roosevelt's Advisory Committee on Education, Washington, D. C.

